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A NATIONAL HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND & THE ADJACENT ISLANDS

A NATIONAL HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND & THE ADJACENT ISLANDS

FROM THEIR DISCOVERY TO THE CENTENNIAL ERA AND FROM THAT PERIOD TO THE PRESENT DAY

BY

ROBERT P. THOMSON

LONDON

GEORGE ROUTLEDGE AND SONS, LTD.

NEW YORK: E. P. DUTTON & CO.

1917

INTRODUCTION

The want of a reliable, fairly connected, and consecutive account of the events of Australian history must long since have been apparent to those who have taken sufficient interest in the past of their native or adopted land to pursue the disconnected and incomplete records which, so far, are all that are available for the study of the inquirer or earnest scholar.

In compiling this history to the Centennial year, the author was confronted by the difficulty, which was not so patent in the subsequent addition, that for a great portion of the period dealt with, Australia was not one country politically, but any number up to six, and that whilst it has been naturally one and indivisible, and as such required a general or national history, it also, as political divisions of it were made, called for a special account of the events of the individual units, and as to do reasonable justice to them needed that some of what was embodied in the account of the whole should be incorporated in their individual narratives, the presence of a certain amount of repetition was apparently unavoidable. However, if this has lengthened the volume of the history, the recapitulations will serve to impress facts that are dealt with on the minds of the readers, a consideration not without value having regard to the scarcity of knowledge of the history of this country that is evidenced by the remarks of many persons in prominent positions.

If exception be taken by residents of any of the States to the fact that a greater amount of space is devoted to a record of the events that happened in New South Wales, it must not be overlooked that for nearly one-half of the period dealt with in the first portion of this history, the narrative of New South Wales was practically that of Australia and that, at all times, the position of the senior colony made much of what occurred within its limits of deep interest to the three provinces that adjoined it, and this could not be said to the same extent of Queensland or Victoria, or even of South Australia, which is directly in contact

with every State, for that colony was wholly unpopulated on the borders; and whilst at least two of the States that adjoined New South Wales had important interests to conserve or cultivate in her outlying districts, the parent colony had none of moment beyond her borders. This was mainly the reason why the opposition to Federation was specially difficult to overcome in New South Wales and why victory for the union cause in that colony was practically its triumph throughout Australia. Moreover, it must be remembered that of a large amount of space that is devoted in the latter part of this work to matters leading up to Federation, the subject dealt with was one of continental interest, and it would have been a waste of the readers' time, as well as an insult to their intelligence, to relate what was practically one story six times over. Having this in view, the writer considered it advisable to make but the one narrative of these matters—at least prior to the Centennial period—and to attach it to the pages dealing with New South Wales.

If further exception be taken to the order in which the histories of the various sections of Australia are narrated, it should be understood that the writer has aimed more at placing each State in the order in which it began its career as a separate identity than with any regard to its political importance, and thus New South Wales is given the first place, not merely because for a long time its story was that of Australia, but because it was the first in existence; whilst Tasmania is placed second, because it is, next to New South Wales, the oldest of the provinces, and this plan has been continued throughout the history.

It will be noted, in addition to what is due to the preceding observations, that up to the advent of responsible government the arrivals, acts, and departures of the Governors have been carefully recorded; whereas, except when some special circumstance seemed to call for a reference to a particular vice-regal personage, there has been no attempt to make a continuous record of the Governors of the constitutional period, when the prerogatives enjoyed by their predecessors had almost wholly passed to men responsible to the Parliaments. Indeed, with that consideration in view, the omission of vice-regal facts was almost imperative having regard to the circumstance that much had to be left out that was at the least of equal importance.

Robert P. Thomson.

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HISTORY OF AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND

Part I—Section 1

CHAPTER I

THE DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA—EARLY REFERENCES

The continental island in the Southern hemisphere, which is now universally known as Australia, was generally referred to by navigators and by writers on geographical subjects, prior to the second half of the seventeenth century, as the Terra Australis, or Great Southland, and from the year 1665 till the early part of the nineteenth century, as New Holland. Thenceforth, it gradually came into possession of the name it now bears.

Though situated at no great distance to the south of a series of islands in the Indian Ocean with which civilized men were acquainted at an early period in the history of the world, the island-continent remained unknown to the vast majority, even of the most educated Europeans, for more than a century after the discovery of America, which wide and unbroken oceans divided from the peoples of Europe and Asia. But whilst the scholars of civilization continued for so long after Columbus discovered the western world to be ignorant of the vast island that is washed at once by the Indian and Pacific oceans, there are evidences that long before anything was definitely established concerning the island-continent, some writers of antiquity made allusions to a habitable land in the southern hemisphere that are accepted as probable references to Australia. One of these writers—Manlius—certainly states what would reasonably apply to the Great Southland ; but whether he and the other ancients really knew or only imagined the existence of the southern con-

tinent, it is certain in all the years of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire and right through and for centuries after the long night of the Middle Ages, there was no trace of any reliable records that would show that Europeans knew anything of the terra incognita of the south. During that great space of time, it is, however, certain that at least the northern coast of the continent was visited by Asiatic traders, who have, nevertheless, left little trace of their visits except it may be some rock pictures and evidences of Asiatic blood in the persons of numbers of the aboriginals of northern Australia.

Whilst there was thus an absence of reliable references to the Australian continent, from the beginning of the Christian era up to nearly the middle of the first quarter of the sixteenth century, there are those who believe that Marco Polo, who visited the East Indian Islands in the year 1293, when in the service of Kublai Khan, Emperor of Hindostan, refers to the Great Southland under the name of Lohac ; but while his remarks as to the locality of his Land of Lohac render the idea very probable, others of them, particularly his mention of elephants as amongst the animals, make it appear that the country he writes about had little in common with what we know of Australia. If, however, we assume that Marco Polo's remarks may have made a break in the long silence on the subject of the Great Southland, there was another lengthy period to pass ere anything further would be written of the island-continent by, or for, men of the white race.

CHAPTER II

THE PORTUGUESE AND THEIR CHARTS—THE FRENCH AND THEIRS

Passing from the clouds of doubt and uncertainty that overshadow the references dealing, or supposed to deal with the Great Southland, prior to the close of the fifteenth century, it is fairly certain that early in the following century there were charts in existence in Portugal that showed a portion of the Australian coast with sufficient accuracy to make it plain that the information was the result of observation ; but whether or not these tracings were of an earlier date than 1512, it is morally certain they were extant between that time and the year 1542,

which is another way of stating that Australia was known to the Portuguese some time between the two dates ; but no record exists of the name of the discoverer or the actual date of his discovery and these circumstances alone are reasonably established : that some nameless Portuguese navigator was the first European of modern times who saw the Great Southland ; that this occurred at some time during the first half of the sixteenth century, and that some of his countrymen were aware of his discovery.

The first reputed visitor to the shores of the Terra Australis whose name is recorded, was a French sailor named Binnot de Gonneville. This navigator claimed to have been driven by a storm to the shores of the island-continent in the year 1503 ; but his description seems more applicable to the Island of Madagascar.

Nevertheless, his claim is of interest in so far as it shows that, even in that early period, the existence of the Great Southland was suspected in Europe.

Twenty-six years later, another Frenchman, named Jean Parmentier, is reported to have made a voyage into Australian waters ; but whether he saw the continent is uncertain ; but it is claimed by some that the maps that were drawn not long after his return to France were based on his information.

One of the earliest of these bears the date of the year 1542. It was the work of the pilot and navigator named Guillaume le Testu, and was published in Paris. It shows under the name of Jave la Grande, an extensive country situated where Australia is, the outline of which bears a remarkable resemblance to that of the northern, western, and eastern coasts of Australia.

About the same time, Jean de Rotz, also French, published another map which he dedicated to Henry VIII of England.

It, like Le Testu's, shows round a great space, which he calls the Londe de Jave, a tracing that generally resembles the true outline of the Australian coast.

A third map, drawn by Pierre Descelliers, in the year 1550, pictures the northern, western, and eastern coasts of a vast continent that he appears to have thought extended from near the south of Java right to the southern pole. This enormous expanse of land is called by him La Terre Australe and his chart, with the others referred to, are accepted by geographers of the present day as genuine and not the work of later times.

Still another Frenchman, Nicholas Desliers, in the year 1566, showed the flag of Portugal within a tracing of Java Major or Greater Java. Whether these maps were based on reports of the voyage of Parmentier, or whether, which is far more probable, they were largely copied from Portuguese originals, cannot now be definitely established; but there seems to be little doubt that, before the date of the earliest tracings, not only had the shores of the northern, western, and eastern sides of Australia been visited by the sailors of Portugal, but that the Terra Australis was claimed, though not publicly, as a possession of that country.

It is a remarkable circumstance that all the French maps mentioned previously, which were probably based on secret charts surreptitiously removed by a Portuguese aristocrat who fled to France, show an opening from the Arafura Sea into the Pacific Ocean; though later on the knowledge of the existence of this waterway was lost. This no doubt occurred through the jealousy Portugal displayed lest other nations should learn and profit by the discoveries of her sailors. Through this not only did the Portuguese navigators receive no credit from the world for the explorations they made; but when in the latter part of the sixteenth century, Portugal began to decline in power and to cease to produce adventurous navigators, her former discoveries in the Indian and Pacific oceans were no longer of moment to her; whilst the records of the explorations, made in the days of her glory, remained hidden and, perhaps, forgotten in dusty cabinets and the localities they dealt with ceased to be known, except by the vaguest rumours, to the two other nations that were to successively take up the work of oceanic discovery.

CHAPTER III

THE SPANISH AND PORTUGUESE DISPUTES—THE POPE'S DECISION

There was before the decline of Portugal a particular reason why the Portuguese should show special jealousy lest the knowledge some of them possessed of the Great Southland should become known to other countries, notably to Spain, Portugal's

earliest and greatest rival in distant seas. Owing to the fact of this rivalry there were continual disputes between the two countries over discoveries claimed by both of them. These disputes were eventually referred to Pope Alexander VI, who to settle them, or rather to prevent their recurrence, laid it down that all discoveries to the east of a meridian one hundred leagues west of the Azores, for the space of one hundred and eighty degrees, should belong to Portugal, and those west of that meridian, for the same distance, should fall to Spain. This arrangement was subsequently, by mutual agreement between the Spanish and Portuguese monarchs, altered so that the meridian of demarcation was fixed at 370 leagues west of Cape Verde Islands. Now it happened in the year 1512, soon after that agreement was made, that the Portuguese discovered the rich Moluccа Islands, where they opened up a valuable trade in spices ; but a considerable portion of these islands was on the Spanish side of the dividing line and this line would also have left the best part of the Terra Australis to the Spaniards. The first difficulty was got over by the Portuguese purchasing from Charles V of Spain for the sum of 350,000 ducats the Spanish claims to the Moluccas. The bargain was a bad one for Spain and caused much dissatisfaction in that country, though that did not prevent the sale from being completed ; but whilst assenting to it, Charles and his Spaniards did not part with their rights to other territories in that part of the world which were on the Spanish side of the delimiting line. Hence, as a great part of Australia was on the Spanish side all that section of Australian territory would fall to the Spaniards were they apprised of the existence of the continent. Now, while the Portuguese knew of the existence of the Terra Australis and yet made no use of it, they did not want to have a dangerous rival so close to their rich East Indian possessions, as would be the case had Spain made settlements in Australia. Consequently, all knowledge of the Great Southland was rigidly suppressed by them, and if they were not completely successful in that policy, at least their rivals seemed to have been without any reliable information on the subject.

CHAPTER IV

OTHER RECORDS

Some time after the Pope's decision, Portugal fell under the sceptre of Spain, and as the latter country then held dominion over Flanders and Holland. it is quite possible that officials from those countries employed by Spain in the archives of Portugal, may have copied or removed some of the maps they found there. Be that as it may, the whole of these records seem to have been unknown to the Spanish masters; but they appear to have been utilized by Dutch and Belgians; for, in the year 1587, a map appeared in Holland, which showed New Guinea as an island: whilst in the year 1598, a Belgian, named Cornelius Wytfliet, published a book which gives a striking evidence that he was well aware of the existence of the Australian continent and his information must have been derived from some source in existence prior to the date of his publication. In this book he states: "The Australis Terra is the most southerly of all lands and is separated from New Guinea by a narrow strait. It begins at two or three degrees from the equator and is held by some to be of so great magnitude that if it were thoroughly explored, it would be regarded as the fifth quarter of the globe. But that locality has been neglected in recent years and seldom is the country visited except when sailors are driven there by storms." This paragraph, following on the French maps, leaves no room to doubt that the Great Southland was known to some Europeans before the Spaniards and Dutch began their researches in Australian waters. Yet neither of these nations knew anything definite of the earlier discovery of the Terra Australis, which on account of the records mentioned, should have been well known in Europe before the end of the sixteenth century; but this was far from being the case, which, considering the lack of communication between the nations at that period and the want of the means to make the existence of publications known, is not greatly to be wondered at, when we know that up to nearly the close of the nineteenth century, there were millions of fairly enlightened persons who were satisfied to believe that the whole of the centre of Australia was occupied by a desert and that the great bulk of the Australian people were blacks.

Whilst despite all the records mentioned, the sixteenth century closed with a general ignorance of the existence of the Great Southland, there began in the opening years of the following century to be a widespread opinion that there really was a land of continental size to the southward of the Indian Isles; yet there were still many educated people who doubted.

CHAPTER V

THE SPANIARDS—THE VOYAGE OF DE QUIROS

Surrounded by many doubters in Spain, Fernandez de Quiros was distinguished by a profound faith in the existence of the Terra Australis. This belief he had held from childhood, as might readily have been the case had he in his early years come across some veteran Portuguese sailor who had seen much of the Indian and Pacific oceans, or had he been able to see some of the old charts of the Londe de Jave or of Java Major. Whatever the source of his belief, it was much in evidence. Nevertheless he had the greatest difficulty in impressing his faith on the King of Spain, whose aid he sought to go in search of the land in doubt. Eventually, he so far succeeded that the monarch gave him a letter of recommendation to the Viceroy of Peru, who when it was presented to him, obedient to his sovereign's command, fitted out three vessels for the task of exploring the southern portions of the Indian and Pacific mains with a view to the discovery of the Great Southland.

It was early in the year 1606 that the expedition set out from Lima. The little squadron was under the command of de Quiros, with Luis Vaez de Torres as second in charge, and the course was set to the west. After a lengthy voyage on the course adopted, the squadron arrived at what was afterwards known to be an island of the New Hebrides, but which de Quiros took to be an eastern extension of the land he was in search of. This territory he named the Tierra del Espiritu Santo, or the Land of the Holy Ghost. Whilst the three vessels were anchored in a bay of the island, a storm arose of such severity that the ship in which was de Quiros put out to sea and was blown off the coast. When the storm abated the navigator wished to return; but the

sailors threatened to mutiny if he did not proceed homeward direct, which, under this compulsion, he did, and thus he sailed away without satisfying himself of the extent of his discovery; but quite content that it was a part of the Terra Australis.

Torres, who had also sailed, or been blown out of the bay, was more fortunate; for losing sight in the storm of his chief's vessel, he returned to the island anchorage, and thence sailing round the coast discovered the insular character of the land and that the island was of no great extent. Satisfied of this, he proceeded, accompanied by the third vessel of the squadron, on the westerly course laid down by de Quiros. Had he not altered this slightly in a northerly direction, he would in time have sighted the Australian coast, from nearly opposite to where the town of Cairns is now situated, if he could have got through the Barrier Reef. Probably, a distant view of that obstacle accounted for the alteration of his course. As it was, he sailed into and through the strait which separates the Australian peninsula of Cape York from New Guinea and which in after years was to bear his name. While passing through this channel Torres saw land away to the south that is supposed to have been Cape York, the most northerly point of the continent; but he took it to be one of the many islands in that locality and entered the Arafura Sea fully convinced that the Great Southland was a myth. Before leaving that quarter he landed on the coast of New Guinea and formally took possession of the country there for the King of Spain.

CHAPTER VI

THE DUTCH—VOYAGES OF THE "DUYFKIN" AND OF DIRK HARTOG

Even had Torres known that the land he saw to the southward was really what, in all probability, it was, he could not have claimed to be the first known discoverer of the Great Southland; for a few months before, that is to say in the month of November, 1605, William Jansz, in command of the *Duyfkin* or *Little Dove*, had set out from Java to find out whether there was a channel to the south of New Guinea that would allow vessels from the more westerly of the Dutch East India Islands to sail

through to the Pacific. Jansz made the coast of New Guinea and, unfortunately for the success of his mission, left it to turn southward too soon. He actually sighted the mainland of Australia close to the straits; but continuing into the Gulf of Carpentaria, of which he is the first recorded discoverer, he sailed down the west coast of Cape York Peninsula, intent on finding the strait which all the time he was leaving behind. He proceeded on this course till he came to a cape which he called Keerweer or Turnagain; because there he decided to turn back, quite satisfied there was no strait between New Guinea and the land along which he had coasted; just as Torres was to be, when, all ignorant of the character of the waterway through which he was passing, he decided that there was no large body of land to the south of New Guinea.

Before, however, the captain of the *Duyfkin* turned back from Keerweer, he allowed a party of his men to land on the shores of the peninsula, near to the cape. There the strangers were attacked by the natives and several of them were killed. Thus the crew of the *Duyfkin* had not only the honour of being the first recorded white men who landed on the Great Southland, but they gained the less enviable fame of furnishing in the persons of their slaughtered comrades, the first of the white race who are known to have died in Australia.

The report of the voyage of the *Duyfkin* created much interest in Holland and, in consequence, the Dutch became seized with a desire to make further explorations in Australian waters. One of the earliest of those who took up this task was Dirk Hartog, who, in the year 1616, fell in with the north-west coast and sailed along a part of it to the neighbourhood of what was to be known as Sharks' Bay. On an island there, which is called after him, he set up a tin plate, showing with the names of his officers and the date, that when in command of the *Eendraght*, or *Concord*, he had visited the Australian coast.

He called the country along which he passed after his ship, the Landt de Eendraght. The interesting memento, which he left on Dirk Hartog's Island, was beheld eighty years after by Captain Vlamingh of the Dutch vessel, the *Geelvinck*, and it was again seen 104 years later when the island was visited by Captain Hamelin of a French exploring expedition. The account of Dirk Hartog's visit gave a new impetus to the work of Australian discovery, and frequent exploring vessels arrived at one

part or another of the northern and western coast-lines ; whilst at least one voyage was made along the westerly half of the southern coast.

CHAPTER VII

DUTCH VOYAGES FROM 1618 TO 1628

In the year 1618, the unknown commander of the Dutch vessel, called the *Mauritius*, discovered near north-west cape a stream that he named Wilhelm's River, which appears to be identical with the one now known as the Ashburton River.

The succeeding year was marked by the finding by Frederick de Hautman, when in command of a fleet of eleven vessels, of the Hautman Abrolhos group of islets and reefs and of the mainland coast at some distance to the north of them. This coast-line was named Van Edel's Land, after the supercargo of the *Amsterdam*, one of Hautman's ships. Three years later, or in 1622, the unknown captain of the *Leeuwin*, or *Lioness*, discovered the prominent headland that bears his vessel's name ; whilst in the following year Jean Carstenz and William Van Coolsteerdt, in command of the yachts *Arnhem* and *Pera*, explored a large portion of the western coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria and named this great indentation after General Carpenter, the head of the Dutch East India Company ; whilst they called the largest of the islands they saw in its waters, Groote Eylandt. Other traces of their visit remain in the name of the peninsula that lies along the western side of the gulf and which from one of their vessels is known as Arnhem's Land. The most north-westerly point of the peninsula is also called after the yacht, Arnhem.

A very extensive exploration was accidentally made in the year 1627, by Pieter Nuyts, who reported that, when homeward bound to Holland, he had sighted and sailed along the southern coast for a thousand miles between its western termination and the vicinity of what was to be known as Eyre Peninsula. He discovered the group of islets near the eastern end of the Australian Bight that after him are called Nuyts' Archipelago.

In the following year, the commander of the ship *Vianen* met and named after himself the part of the coast of Western Australia that is designated De Witt's Land.

CHAPTER VIII

PELSART'S DISASTROUS EXPEDITION

The year 1629 was destined to be marked by the most disastrous of all the expeditions that Holland sent out to the Great South-land, and it is noteworthy that this particular one was designed to form a settlement on the western coast. It was under the command of Captain Pelsart of the ship *Batavia*, and on the evening of the 4th of June, the ship struck on one of the reefs of the Hautman Abrolhos group. It was moonlight at the time with fine weather; but not long after the vessel drove on the rocks, the wind rose, bringing with it heavy rain and darkness, through which little could be seen but the foaming billows breaking on the reef. Every attempt was made by Pelsart to save his ship from total loss; but owing to the misconduct of many of his crew, who broke into the spirit room and under the influence of liquor became insubordinate and incapable, the orders of the commander were badly attended to. The mainmast was cut down, but not freed from its rigging entanglements, and was thus in its fallen position a greater impediment to the chance of getting the vessel off the reef than it had been before it was cut down. All the guns and some of the cargo were jettisoned to lighten the ship; but it was of no avail. When day dawned the following morning, the prospect was little more cheering; for the *Batavia* was found to be hopelessly fast on the rocks and far and near around were other dangerous reefs with angry seas breaking over them. Between these many reefs, however, several small barren islands rose out of the water and offered the only available refuge: for the mainland coast was over twenty miles away. To these islets, when he saw that the ship could not be saved, Pelsart resolved to have the women and children removed, together with the sick in body and mind; for there were some of the latter so out of their wits with fear as to be incapable of helping themselves. The able-bodied men were to be removed afterwards. With much difficulty and danger about 180 persons were landed on either one of the islands, the majority of them on the larger one; but neither of these islets at first showed any traces of drinkable water; though, happily, it was found, subsequently, that some holes where the water rose and fell with the

tide contained liquid that was not salt, as the castaways had thought at first ; whilst a scanty supply of provisions was landed from the wreck. Pelsart, himself, landed on the larger island and after he had ascertained its nature, desired to return to the ship ; but owing to the way the sea had risen since his departure for the island, he found that it was impossible to get alongside of the vessel. Whilst he was as near to her as he could get, the ship's carpenter jumped from the vessel and swam to Pelsart's boat with the information that a lieutenant and some seventy men were still aboard in a desperate position. Pelsart asked the man if he could return to the ship and ask those on board to endeavour to save themselves on such rafts and floats as they could cast overboard with themselves. The brave man, without a moment's hesitation, swam back to the ship with the captain's directions and succeeded in getting on board. Pelsart, finding that he could not get to the ship, returned to the island he had been on. After inspecting it, he wanted to visit the island where the other portion of the castaways were ; but the bonds of discipline had broken loose among those he was surrounded by and they refused to allow him to do so, lest he should abandon them. However, they consented that he should endeavour to reach the mainland for water. With that object the captain set out in one of the boats for the coast ; but as there was a heavy sea running and being ignorant of any sheltered inlet, he was unable for a week to find a landing-place. When finally he succeeded, he only managed to obtain from some holes in the rocks about forty gallons of water, the result of a recent rainfall. This quantity would have been of little use to the castaways on the islands ; so instead of returning to them, he set out on the long journey to Java, which it is probable he would never have reached had he not, fortunately, three weeks later been picked up by a vessel which carried him to Java. Making known the story of the disaster, he was sent with a small craft named the *Saardam* to remove the survivors at the Abrolhos. On his arrival at the scene of the wreck, he luckily proceeded direct to the smaller island and there learned that during his absence an apothecary named Cornelius who, after the departure of the captain, had escaped on some floating cargo from the wreck to the larger island and had induced a number of the more mutinous of the castaways there to make him their leader in an attempt to seize the provisions, water, and women. The attempt succeeded. The

mutineers murdered all the men who were not of their party and then carried out the division of the women and stores, the apothecary taking for his share of the former, the daughter of a clergyman. The wreck having at this time broken up, the mutineers obtained from the waves a large quantity of goods of all kinds, amongst which were rich clothing wherein they arrayed themselves, appointing at the same time their leader as "Captain-General." They also declared war against the people on the other island and made several attempts to land to slaughter them; but were defeated on each occasion, and in the last of their attacks their leader was captured by the defenders of the loyal island. Being thus informed, Pelsart did not proceed to the island of the mutineers; but waited with guns loaded to see what they would do. They settled the question by putting off in their boats to capture the *Saardam*, hoping to find a small and unarmed crew; but when they arrived within certain range of his guns, Pelsart hailed them; ordered them to throw their weapons overboard and to put up their hands in token of surrender, or he would sink them. His orders were obeyed. The mutineers were then commanded to come to the ship, one boat at a time, and then to come on board, one by one. As each man came over the side he was seized and put in irons. Pelsart then took on board all the remainder of the castaways, together with a quantity of treasure which had formed part of the *Batavia's* cargo. His last act before leaving the scene was to hang from the yard-arm of his vessel all the mutineers except two who were landed on the mainland coast, and this pair of involuntary settlers were the first white men who are known to have lived in Australia; but whether for days or for years was never ascertained; for the marooned men were heard of no more.

The story of the disastrous end of Pelsart's expedition put an end to the inclination of the Dutch to form a settlement on the continent and even stopped for some years the work of exploring its coasts.

It was not till the year 1636 that another of the navigators of Holland visited the great Southland. This was Pieter Pieterszoon, who, in command of the ships *Cleen Amsterdam* and *Wesel*, arrived on the northern coast, which he followed for a considerable distance in a westerly direction to Melville Island, taking the land he saw there to be part of the mainland. The name of Wesel Island, off the north-western end of Arnhem's Land, is a reminder of this visit.

CHAPTER IX

THE VOYAGE OF TASMAN—THE DISCOVERY OF VAN DIEMEN'S LAND

Eight years after Pieterszoon's voyage, the Governor of Java, Antony Van Diemen, decided to seriously resume the work of exploring the coast of the Great Southland and he chose for the task, Abel Jansz Tasman, who had already distinguished himself as a navigator among the islands of the Indian Ocean. He was given command of two vessels named, respectively, the *Heemskerk* and the *Zeehaen*, or *Sea Hen*, for the proposed explorations. Tasman started his voyage from the island of Mauritius, where he would readily reach the latitude of the trade winds that consistently blow south of that island towards the continent he was to explore; but keeping nearly along the line of the 40th parallel, he was too far south to meet the mainland of Australia and, instead, after travelling out of sight of the southern coast of the continent, past nearly its entire extent, he met with land on the 24th of November, 1642, which he took to be the south-eastern extremity of the mainland and which continued to be so considered by all geographers for nearly one hundred and sixty years. To the country he had thus discovered, Tasman, in honour of the Governor who had appointed him, gave the name of Van Diemen's Land; but two centuries later this designation was, by a just recognition of its discoverer and for other reasons, altered to the name it now bears of Tasmania.

Tasman is supposed to have first seen the western coast of the island near a headland, named long after by Bass, Point Hibbs. From there he sailed south till he came to the most south-westerly extremity, where, following the trend of the coast-line, he turned in a north-easterly direction till he arrived at an inlet which, in honour of the Stadtholder of Holland, he called Frederick Henry Bay. Landing on the shores of this bay, the navigator erected a flagstaff and hoisted the flag of the Dutch East India Company, in whose name he formally took possession of the country he had discovered. In the account he gave of his visit Tasman states: "We heard, as we thought, the noise of men but saw none. We perceived, however, two trees about two or two and a half fathoms thick and sixty or sixty-five feet

high below the branches. The bark of these trees was cut with flints into steps to enable the inhabitants to climb them and take the birds' nests[1] thereon. These steps were about five feet apart, so that we must either conclude that these people are very tall or else that they have some unknown trick to make use of the said steps for climbing such trees. In one tree the steps seemed as fresh and green as though they had only been cut about four days. The noise of men and their play which we heard was like the sound of a jew's trump and was not far off; but we saw nobody. We saw the footprints of a wild beast having claws like a tiger[2] and also the marks of other beasts. The trees stood close together and were not encumbered with undergrowth. We likewise saw the smoke of fires."

After making these observations, the navigator decided to depart from the island which, as we have seen, he took to be a part of the mainland.

CHAPTER X

TASMAN'S DISCOVERY OF NEW ZEALAND

On leaving Frederick Henry Bay, and Van Diemen's Land, Tasman stood away to the eastward, and after sailing for about thirteen hundred miles in that direction, on the 13th of December, 1642, land was seen in front. It proved to be a point, near the northern extremity of what was in after years to be known as the South Island of the group of islands that were named after Tasman's return, by the Governor-General of Java, as New Zealand, from the province of Zeeland, in Holland. The designation given by the Dutch Governor was a substitute for that of Staaten Landt, which was the title chosen by Tasman; but neither he nor the Governor was aware that the name given by the latter would be that which would be borne by a group of islands, rather than by a single large one, as Tasman believed.

Rounding the point, Tasman successively saw two bays separated from each other by a cape. The more easterly of these,

[1] It is more probable that the steps were cut in the trees to enable the natives to climb to capture opossums.

[2] The beast, whose claw marks were seen by Tasman, was in all probability a Tasmanian Devil, an animal now extinct.

which is known from its discoverer as Tasman's Bay, was considered by the navigator, after he had examined it, as offering insufficient shelter for his ships, so he entered the other inlet, with the intent to land on its shores ; but whilst he was preparing to do this, the Maories, as the natives of New Zealand are called, came out in their war canoes to attack his ships. Unfortunately, one of his boats was passing from one of the anchored ships to the other. For this boat the war party of natives made a dart, and getting alongside of it, their vast superiority in numbers made it apparently certain their attack would succeed ; but before it was too late, Tasman fired on their canoes from the guns of his ship with such effect that the assailing warriors abandoned the attack and fled ; though not before they had killed three of the occupants of the boat and had knocked a fourth overboard. This hostile reception deterred Tasman from proceeding with his intention to land, and after naming the inlet, from the murderous attack on his boat's crew, Massacre Bay, he hoisted his anchors and sailed away in a northerly direction. This course was unfortunate for him ; for had he followed the trend of the coast from Massacre Bay in a general easterly direction for a short distance, he would have come to the strait that divides the north island from the south one and would so have learned that what he took to be one large island was really two. But keeping his northerly course he fell in with the coast of the north island near the projecting land which was to be named Mount Egmont Peninsula and was quite satisfied that the open ocean he had been traversing between Massacre Bay and the peninsula was merely a large indentation in the land. He called this supposed bay, after the name of one of his ships, Zeehaen's Bight.

From the point where he saw the west coast of the north island Tasman proceeded parallel with the shore, to its extreme northern termination, where a bold headland marks the land's end. This promontory the navigator named, after the daughter of the Governor-General of Java, Cape Maria Van Diemen, and without making any attempt to round it, he continued his northerly course. At some distance out from the cape, he passed the trio of islets that form the last outposts of New Zealand towards the north and called them the Three Kings. This was his last act in connection with New Zealand. It was not, however, the last of his important discoveries ; for on his way north he came to

the archipelago now known as the Fiji Islands, which, however, he did not stop to explore; but continued on his way via the north coast of New Guinea to Java.

Tasman undertook a second voyage in the year 1644, with the intent to ascertain something about the strait which Torres had passed through thirty years before; but, like the Captain of the *Duyfkin*, Tasman missed it and, instead, entered the Gulf of Carpentaria, of which he examined the eastern coast where Jansz had been, and the southern coast, of which he was the first known explorer. Moreover, he added to the discoveries previously made by the commanders of the *Arnhem* and *Pera* on the western side, and as a result of his surveys the whole of the three shores of the gulf were mapped out with some accuracy.

But valuable as was the work done by the navigator on that occasion, his enduring fame rests chiefly on the two great and memorable discoveries he made on his first voyage into Australasian waters.

After Tasman's return home from his second expedition, the Dutch began to show the Terra Australis on their charts and to write of it, also, as New Holland, a name the whole continent continued to bear for one hundred and forty years and the western portion of it for nearly two centuries.

CHAPTER XI

EVENTS FROM TASMAN'S TIME TO THE END OF THE FLINDERS PERIOD

At the close of the Tasman period, a map might readily have been drawn by the Dutch from the information they had acquired by repeated discoveries which, starting in a westerly direction, would have shown the Australian coast, from Cape York Peninsula right round to Eyre's Peninsula on the southern coast; but between those two localities proceeding in the opposite direction, all would have been doubt and uncertainty, except that Tasman had fixed the southern extremity of the eastern coast at the most southerly point of Van Diemen's Land, which would appear on the maps that might have been drawn as portion of the mainland. However, with two coasts of the continent fairly explored

and about one-half of a third more or less known from the voyage of Nuyts, and with a limit fixed on the south to the fourth side, the existence and position of the Terra Australis was no longer in doubt, and for the successors of Tasman and of his predecessors there remained not a question of discovering an unknown or doubtful continent, but rather of exploring such portions of its coast-line as had not been visited by the Dutch or the recorded navigators of other nations. Still, this left a high and honourable work to be done ; for it meant the exploration of the whole of the eastern coast and rather more than one-half of the southern, as well as the discovery of three most important straits which the Dutch sailors had failed to behold.

In the year 1656, just twelve years after Tasman's return from his second visit to Australian waters, a second marine disaster occurred, it is thought not far from where Pelsart's ship had met its doom on the Abrolhos reef ; but this time the scene of the disaster was on the mainland coast. Somewhere, there, the large Dutch barque, the *De Vergulde*, or *Gilt Dragon*, having on board treasure to the amount of 78,600 guilders in silver, was lost with 118 of her crew and passengers. Of all who had been on board, only the occupants of one boat escaped. They succeeded in navigating their frail craft to Java ; but were unable to give a sufficiently precise description of the locality of the wreck to enable it to be traced by the rescue expeditions that were sent out. There were three of these within three years, and though a most careful examination was made of the coast, accompanied by the firing of guns, no trace of the lost vessel, or of the sixty-eight human beings that were reported by the boat's crew which escaped, as having been still alive on the wreck as they left, was ever discovered, and the bones of the lost Dutchmen, as well as the treasure that the *Gilt Dragon* had carried, lie to this day on some unknown spot on the lonely shores of Western Australia. Such, also, was the result of another wreck on the same shores and probably not far from the locality of the loss of the *Gilt Dragon ;* for in the year 1696, another Dutch vessel, the *Ridderschap van Hollandt*, or the *Knights of Holland*, was lost, and though search was made along the coast from some distance to the north of the Abrolhos to the vicinity of the mouth of the Swan River by Captain Vlamingh in the Dutch ship of war the *Geelvinck*, no trace of the wreck or of any survivors from it was found. Whilst engaged in this quest Vlamingh

went through the channel between the Abrolhos rocks and the mainland and called it after the name of his ship the Geelvinck Channel. He also made the very important discovery of the Swan River, which he so named on account of the number of black swans he saw on it. Had this discovery been made a little earlier, it might have influenced the Dutch to persist in their attempts to found a colony in Australia; for in the Swan River district they would have found a locality suitable in fertility and climate for the settlement of white people; but Holland, in Vlamingh's time, was too much concerned in a desperate war with France to have much inclination to indulge in distant enterprises of moment and was, thereafter, in the decline of her power and energy.

As the relations of the Dutch with Australia began with the slaughter of some of the *Duyfkin's* crew in the north, so their connection with it ended with a wreck on the mainland coast of Western Australia, in the year 1727, when the *Zeewyk*, with much treasure on board, was cast away on that ill-omened shore to the Dutch, where two previous disasters had occurred, and perhaps facing that Abrolhos reef where Pelsart's ship had met her fate. Happily, in the *Zeewyk's* case human life suffered but little; for eighty-two, or nearly all of her people, having succeeded in building another vessel from the timbers of the wreck, sailed safely in this to Java.

CHAPTER XII

THE BRITISH AND AUSTRALIAN DISCOVERY

Whilst nothing was done by Great Britain, during all the long period when the Portuguese, Spaniards, and Dutch were making discoveries and suffering losses in or near Australian waters, as early as the year 1624, Sir William Courteen, a merchant of London, petitioned James I to permit him, at his own expense, to undertake the discovery of the "Lands in the south parts which were known as the Terra Australis Incognita, to plant colonies and a plantation thereon, and to have the said lands and territories vested in him as proprietor." James, who was very anxious to keep on good terms with the Portuguese and Spaniards and

had no desire to be embroiled with the Dutch, refused the prayer of Courteen's petition, which had it been granted might have caused the settlement of Australia to have begun more than one hundred and fifty years before it actually was. Though rejected, the London merchant's request showed that in his time there was knowledge in Great Britain of the existence of the Great Southland sufficiently definite to induce a business man to undertake to spend great sums of money on an exploring and colonising expedition to it for purposes of profit. Writing about thirty years later, Sir William Temple states: "Yet a continent has long since been found out within fifteen degrees of the south about the length of Java, which is marked by the name of New Holland on the maps, and I have heard it said among the Dutch that their East India Company has long since forbidden under the greatest penalties any further attempts at discovering that continent, having already more trade in those parts than they can turn to account and fearing that some more populous nation of Europe might make great establishments of trade in some of those unknown regions."

In justice to the Dutch, it may be mentioned that Temple's reference to their India Company's jealousy in the matter of Australian discoveries, though probably not without some foundation, is not supported by any reliable information that has come down to us; but it is certain that the policy he was led to attribute to the Dutch corporation in this matter was characteristic of the Spaniards, and that the Portuguese, who preceded the latter in Australian seas, went so far as to make the disclosure to foreigners of their discoveries and trade routes a capital offence, punishable by outlawry and death. Whatever may be the truth or error of Temple's remarks as to the policy of the Dutch in this matter, his distinct reference to the Australian continent proves that in the middle of the seventeenth century there were men in England who had no doubts of its existence and there were others than Englishmen and Hollanders who were of the same opinion; for Thevenot, writing in 1663, states: "The Southern Land which forms a fifth part of the world has been discovered at different periods. The Chinese had knowledge of it long ago." Thevet's "Cosmographie Universal" refers to the map that illustrated the voyages of Sir Francis Drake which showed the Terra Australis as separated by a strait from New Guinea. But with all this nothing was done to utilize

the information that was available. Certainly, an abortive and wholly disastrous attempt to make a settlement on the continent had been set on foot by the Dutch; but so far as Holland was concerned, the many voyages of her adventurous sailors to various parts of the Australian coast had yielded nothing to her but barren honour and the time was at hand when she would abandon all interest in the work of Australian research and possible settlement. Her last expedition, of the former character, was one to the northern coast, during the year 1705, after which the further exploration of the Terra Australis was to fall into the hands of that "populous nation," across the North Sea, which had long been looked on in Holland as the most dangerous rival of her commercial empire. The hour had struck, in fact before the last expedition of the Dutch, when an Englishman was to visit Australia and in this to be the forerunner of another and greater sailor of his race and of the hundreds of thousands of the British nation who in the fullness of time were to make of the Great Southland their permanent abode.

CHAPTER XIII

DAMPIER VISITS THE NORTH-WEST COAST

It was in the year 1688 that the noteworthy event of the first recorded visit of an Englishman to Australia took place, and though it was asserted that sixty-six years before that date a British vessel was wrecked on the Australian coast and that the crew escaped to Java, William Dampier's name will stand as the first of his race who is known to have trodden the soil of Australia and who gave to the world an account of his visit. At the time of his voyage Dampier was neither more nor less than one of the crew of a pirate ship; but at that period there was no such infamy attached to the corsair's calling as justly invested it at a later date. Usually, the buccaneers, as the pirates were commonly termed, looked on their piracy as a sort of private war on the ships of nations that, whether at peace or war with the countries that the sea rovers belonged to, were always considered to be enemies, and this fact, together with the circumstance that the sea freebooters when in their home ports

generally spent the proceeds of their voyages freely, caused them to be more honoured than condemned by their countrymen, and there were instances, as in the case of Sir Francis Drake, of men who were more than suspected of piracy, rising to high and honourable positions in their country's service. In fact, Dampier's freebooting cruise on the high seas did not prevent him from being appointed a captain in the Royal Navy, and it was with that rank and in command of H.M.S. *Roebuck* that he made a second voyage to Australia.

On the first voyage the pirate ship anchored in a bay, afterwards known from the King's ship as Roebuck Bay. There, in the year 1688, Dampier and his associates remained from January 5th to March 12th. Whilst on the shores of the bay he made some interesting observations respecting the aboriginals and animals. Of the former he states: "They are the miserablest people in the world with unpleasant looks and the worst features of any people I ever saw. Setting aside their human shape, they differ but little from brutes. They are tall, straight-bodied and thin with small, long limbs. They have great heads, round foreheads, and great brows. Their eyelids are always half closed to keep the flies out of their eyes, they being so troublesome here that no fanning will keep them from coming to one's face and without the assistance of both hands to keep them off they will creep into one's nostrils and mouth too, if the lips are not shut very close.[1] So that from their infancy being thus annoyed with these insects, they do never open their eyes as other people do. Therefore, they cannot see far unless they hold up their heads as if they were looking at something over them. They have great bottle noses, pretty full lips, and wide mouths. The two fore teeth are wanting in all of them; neither have they any beards. They are long visaged and of a very unpleasing aspect, having not one graceful feature in their faces."

Dampier's second voyage to Australia was made in the year 1699. In this case, whilst he again visited Roebuck Bay, he sailed along the coast to Sharks' Bay, passing and noting between the two inlets mentioned, the archipelago which is named after him. Dampier's two visits, whilst interesting as those of the first Anglo-Saxon who had seen and described a portion of Australia and its inhabitants, did no good for the country, seeing that

[1] The flies do not trouble in the colder months.

his character of the land and its inhabitants was of such a depressing nature that it long checked the desire for further explorations in Australian waters and these practically ceased for nearly seventy years, when an expedition set out which, from its results, was of more importance than any or all that had preceded it.

CHAPTER XIV

FROM DAMPIER'S TIME TO COOK'S VOYAGE

WHILST the connection of Great Britain with the work of Australian Discovery had begun and ended, in the closing years of the seventeenth century, with the two voyages of Dampier, the existence of the Southern continent was not wholly overlooked by at least some of her people, ere the period of seventy years had elapsed. Thus, in the year 1713, a certain John Welbe offered a plan to the Government to make a voyage for the full discovery of the Terra Australis.

In the year 1759, it was suggested, in the second volume of "Modern History," that the African Company, or the South Sea Company, should be invested with the exclusive right of making discoveries and settlements in the Terra Australis; whilst in the year 1764, Alexander Dalrymple published an account of "Discoveries made in the South Pacific," in the course of which he refers to what was then known as New Holland, under its present name, which, though it had been used before, had long since been abandoned. Finally, about the year 1766, appeared an English translation of Brosses' French work, dealing with the Terra Australis and the voyages made to it at different times. In a chapter added to the third volume of this work, there are some suggestions as to "The method of forming colonies in the Terra Australis and the advantages that may be expected to result to Great Britain from such establishments."

It was soon after this publication appeared that some interest seemed, at length, to be aroused in England in the question of the Australian continent and, early in the year 1768, action was taken by the Government. A vessel of 370 tons, named the *Endeavour*, was fitted out for a visit to the South Pacific, in which

geographical research was to be combined with a purely scientific object.

Lieutenant James Cook was appointed to command the *Endeavour*, and whilst by the instructions he received, the primary object of the voyage to be made was to observe the transit of Venus at the Island of Tahiti, Cook was instructed to circumnavigate the globe and to determine the position and extent of the Southern continent.

CHAPTER XV

COOK'S FIRST VOYAGE—HIS VISIT TO NEW ZEALAND

It was the month of August, 1768, when the *Endeavour* set out on her memorable voyage and, after a safe and little eventful passage, the vessel safely arrived at the Tahitian Island and there the contemplated observation of the transit was successfully made. Having thus completed one part of the tasks assigned to him, Cook began his geographical researches by directing his course to the east coast of what he was to prove was the north island of New Zealand, which he reached on the 6th of October, 1769, near an inlet he called Poverty Bay, on account of the difficulty he experienced in obtaining water or provisions, owing to the persistent hostility of the natives. He made three attempts to get into friendly relations with them ; but neither force nor conciliatory methods were effectual. It is noteworthy that the Maories understood the language of a Tahitian native named Tupia, by whom Cook used to make his desire for friendly relations known to them ; but they not only refused to be influenced by Tupia's speeches, but lost no opportunity to show their hostility. On two occasions a Maori was killed, and on the third several of them, and though three Maori boys were captured on the second occasion and treated so well that they became very friendly they were unable to influence their countrymen to be friendly also. Finally, Cook abandoned the inlet and sailed southward till he came to another and much larger indentation which he called Hawke's Bay, and there he remained for several days on amicable terms with the local tribe, some of the members of which visited the ship and even consented to remain on board

all night. From this inlet, Cook proceeded further south till he came to a point which he called Cape Turnagain because there he decided to turn about and sail northward. He passed the two bays he had entered, rounded the terminal point of the eastern coast, which he called East Cape, and proceeded thence in a north-westerly direction close to the shore of the Bay of Plenty, so called on account of the abundance of provisions obtainable there, till he came to an inlet he named Mercury Bay. There he landed and took formal possession of the country for Great Britain. This accomplished, the navigator left Mercury Bay and continued along the coast to its northern extremity, which he named Cape North. Rounding that point and the adjacent one, which Tasman had called Maria Van Diemen, he turned south and proceeded on till he came to and anchored in an inlet in what he was soon to prove was the South Island. The inlet he called Queen Charlotte Sound.

Whilst on one of the hills there he saw a mass of land away to the north which was divided from the territory on which he stood by a rather wide channel. Through this passage, which received his name, he proceeded in an easterly direction to beyond its entrance and then turned north to Cape Turnagain, when he was satisfied that he had circumnavigated a large island. He then resolved to test the character of the land on the south side of the strait by following the trend of the coast from the northernmost point, on its eastern front right round to Queen Charlotte Sound, naming, as he had done in the case of the northern island, most of the prominent projections and indentations of the shores. He thus established the fact that what Tasman had taken to be one great island was really two. Cook found, also, that the South Island was by far the larger of the two ; that it was peopled by tribes less fierce in character than those he had met with in the northern island and that, in consequence, there was less difficulty in establishing friendly relations with them.

With the circumnavigation of the two great islands Cook terminated his geographical work on this voyage, so far as New Zealand was concerned.

In addition to the service he had rendered to his country and to science by his discoveries, he left, wherever the natives would allow him to come into friendly contact with them, some pigs, sheep, goats, fowls, potatoes, and vegetable seeds. The pigs and poultry alone did well of the live-stock, and in after years

when Cook revisited New Zealand he found they had greatly multiplied. The sheep and goats had perished through eating poisonous weeds; whilst the potatoes had been so successfully cultivated that they had become one of the staple foods of the Maories, who nevertheless continued, as Cook was to find from a sad experience, to be remorseless cannibals, and this character they bore till well into the following century, when their cannibalism was put down, partly by force and partly by the teachings of Christianity.

CHAPTER XVI

COOK DISCOVERS THE SOUTH-EAST COAST OF AUSTRALIA — HE FOLLOWS IT NORTHWARD TO BOTANY BAY

Having finished his circumnavigation of New Zealand, Cook proceeded to the task of inquiring into the position and extent of the Australian continent. His intention on leaving New Zealand was to sail direct for Van Diemen's Land, which was deemed by him, as it had been by Tasman, to be the south-eastern extremity of Australia; or as it was then known, of New Holland; but while he was yet some distance from the eastern coast of the island, a fresh south-west gale sprang up; before which the *Endeavour* was allowed to run, and ere it had gone down, land was sighted ahead, which proved to be a slight elevation on the south-eastern shore of the mainland of Australia, facing what was one day to be known as the Gippsland Bight, in the coast-line of the future State of Victoria. This elevation, on a generally level beach, Cook called after one of his lieutenants, who first saw it, Point Hicks. It was on the morning of the 19th of April, 1770, that the navigator first beheld the land of Australia and, through this, it is an historical date in the annals of the continent.

Cook decided to follow the trend of the coast from Point Hicks towards the north in place of making south to where Tasman had been. For some distance, his course was north-east, till he rounded the projecting headland which forms the south-eastern extremity of Australia. This, he named Cape Howe. Thence, his course was shaped northward; but following the outline of the coast with a view to reaching its northern termination, his way for nearly half the distance to be traversed

inclined to the north-east, and for the remainder of the course tended towards the north-west.

After leaving Cape Howe, Cook sought for a harbour; but though he passed several indentations, none attracted him sufficiently to induce him to anchor and linger, till on the 28th of April, he came to an inlet which later on he called Botany Bay, owing to the abundance of curious and unknown plants that were seen on its shores. Of these the two naturalists of the expedition, Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, collected nearly a thousand specimens. Cook did not delay to land on the shores he had discovered, and thus it was that he and a portion of his company proceeded to set foot on the beach of the inlet on the same day that the *Endeavour* passed through the heads. The spot chosen for the landing was the southern shore at a place that was subsequently named Kurnell, and the date of this event, the 28th of April, is one forever memorable in the history of Australia and as such might well be commemorated as a national holiday. The ship stayed nearly a week in the bay, and whilst the naturalists were busy making their collection of vegetation, Cook endeavoured to come into friendly contact with the natives, or as they were to be called later on, the Blacks; but owing to their shy and distrustful attitude, no progress was made; though afterwards the navigator was successful in making friends with one of the far northern tribes. He gave a much more favourable report of the aboriginals than that which Dampier had supplied in respect to the natives of the north-western coast.

During the week in Botany Bay, a seaman named Forby Sutherland died and was buried on the shore. He was the first white man who is known to have died a natural death on Australian soil.

CHAPTER XVII

NORTHWARD FROM BOTANY BAY TO TORRES STRAITS

On the 6th of May, Cook continued his voyage and the same day passed an opening in the land, a few miles north of Botany Bay, which, in honour of Sir George Jackson, one of the Admiralty secretaries, he called Port Jackson, little knowing that the inlet he so named was one of the finest and most beautiful

harbours in the world. As he passed along the coast, Cook named nearly all the prominent headlands and important inlets, as well as such high hills as were to be seen from the deck of his ship. The last-mentioned usually received descriptive titles from some peculiarity in their appearance, as the Dromedary, the Pigeon House, the Three Brothers, Mount Warning, etc., and this applied to some of the capes, as Rams' Head, Point Perpendicular, Smoky Cape, and Point Danger; though others were called after persons, as Cape Howe, Cape Byron, Cape Grafton, and Cape York, and this was observed in the case of such inlets as Port Jackson, Port Stephens, Moreton Bay, Halifax Bay, Princess Charlotte Bay, etc. Others of them, again, such as Botany Bay, Trinity Bay, Bustard Bay, and Trial Bay, were so called from some event or date connected with the visit. At Bustard Bay Cook spent some time and chose the name he gave it from the shooting of a bird, described as one of the bustard species, which was found to be excellent eating and was most likely a native turkey. When the navigator left this inlet, he resumed his northerly course and had reached well up to the northern termination of the coast, when his vessel unhappily struck on a coral reef, near a point which he called from this misfortune, Cape Tribulation. Finally, however, after the ship had been lightened by the removal of her stores and ammunition, she was successfully hauled off the reef; whilst the hole the rocks had made in her keel was covered over with a sail, which so greatly checked the inflow of water, as to enable her to be navigated to the estuary of a stream which Cook named, after his ship, the Endeavour River. There the vessel was beached and the necessary repairs effected. While the work was proceeding the country in the vicinity was explored by the naturalists and all hands were astonished at the sight of kangaroos, animals utterly unlike any beasts they had ever seen. It was in this place that the navigator succeeded in cultivating friendly relations with the natives who, like those he had seen at a distance at Botany Bay, were absolutely naked. Having repaired the damage done by the coral rocks, the *Endeavour's* course was again set northerly, and finally the vessel reached and rounded the northernmost point, which received the name of Cape York. Near there, on an islet he called Possession Island, Cook landed and, having planted the British flag, formally took possession for Great Britain, on the 14th of June, 1770, of the whole of the eastern

coast, calling it by the name of New South Wales from a fancied resemblance of parts of the coast-line to the cliffs of South Wales.

From Possession Island, Cook completed the passage of the straits that Torres had gone through 164 years before. Satisfied, which Torres was not, of the character of the waterway, the navigator sailed for the south-west coast of New Guinea, where, after observing the natives and their country, in the locality, he directed his course for Batavia, en route for England.

Cook made several other exploring voyages to the Pacific and in each case he made it a point to visit New Zealand. In one of these expeditions he sought for a reputed continent in the Southern Ocean, and in another for a passage from the Pacific round the north coast of America; but in neither of these attempts was he successful, and whilst wintering in the Hawaiian Islands, on his return from the icy north, he was, on the 14th of February, 1779, killed in the course of an attack by the natives.

Though it has been disputed that Cook was the discoverer of the eastern coast of Australia, it is certain that he is the only recorded navigator who explored it and for all practical purposes it was by his voyage that it was made known to civilized man. He proved that New Zealand was not one island, but two large ones, with another much smaller. He established the fact that the strait shown on the old maps as between New Guinea and the Terra Australis actually existed when the nations had lost the knowledge of it, and he was the pioneer who opened the way for the coming settlement of the Australian continent. For these good and sufficient reasons his name will ever be honoured by all Australians, and a hundred years after his death the people of that portion of Australia which retains the name he gave to the whole of the eastern coast erected a statue of him, which faces the splendid harbour he named Port Jackson.

CHAPTER XVIII

PROPOSED BRITISH SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA — THE LOYALISTS — THE CONVICTS

About four years after the death of Captain Cook, the British authorities began to think some use could be made of the great territory that the navigator had named New South Wales.

Accordingly, on the suggestion of Mr. James Matra, who had been a midshipman in the *Endeavour* on her Australian voyage, it was in contemplation to establish on the shores of the continent, a settlement where a large number of American colonists, who had sided with Great Britain against their own countrymen in the war of American Independence, might find new homes in place of those they had, in the opinion of the Americans, justly forfeited in the Western continent. Whilst this scheme was being considered, the banished Loyalists got weary of waiting and most of them went to one of the Canadian provinces and settled there. The remainder were apparently too few in number to obtain consideration from the British Government and went where they could.

But the scheme of settling the Australian continent, or some portions of it, with free colonists, had not from the first appealed strongly to the authorities in Great Britain and the force of circumstances turned them wholly to another policy. Just as the success of the American Rebellion had made it impossible for the Loyalists to remain in the United States, so did it operate to prevent the transportation of British prisoners to them. It had been the practice, for a long time before the war, to send those who were convicted of offences against the laws of Great Britain to one or other of the American colonies. This outlet being closed by the result of the war the British prisons became overcrowded with prisoners, and when the suggestion was made that the great land that Cook had made known was a suitable place for convict settlements the idea was seriously taken up, and little or no protest appears to have been made against the policy of preferring felons to free persons for the settlement of a virgin continent. Accordingly, in the year 1786, Lord Sydney, Secretary of State for the Colonies, gave directions that the proposal should be adopted. With this object in view, Captain Arthur Phillip was appointed to the command of H.M.S. *Sirius*, with ten other vessels as tenders and transports, the whole to bear a community of some 550 male and 230 female prisoners, together with military guards and the necessary provisions and stock for the maintenance of the future colony. In addition to his naval command, Phillip received the commission of Governor of New South Wales, which his instructions stated that he was to consider as the territory lying between Cape York and the South Cape of the east coast (which was then supposed to be

continuous to the southernmost point of Van Diemen's Land) and between the Pacific Ocean and the 135th meridian of east longitude. There was no limit put to his powers as Governor and Captain-General, and this authority was to extend not only over the land lying between the meridian and the east coast, but over all the adjacent islands of the Pacific Norfolk Island being specially mentioned. Phillip was specially required to lose no time in setting out and in landing on the coast of the proposed colony, no doubt because it was feared that a French expedition under La Perouse might have the design of forming a settlement in the same quarter, if it should arrive and find the country unoccupied by the British; but there is no indication that the French navigator had any such idea.

CHAPTER XIX

PHILLIP'S FLEET ARRIVES IN BOTANY BAY—IT REMOVES TO PORT JACKSON

With such instructions, after eight months of unremitting attention to the preparations, Phillip was able to report early in May, 1787, that all was ready for departure. This event duly took place on the 13th of that month, and on the 18th of January of the succeeding year, the fleet safely arrived in Botany Bay, on whose shores it was proposed to establish the settlement; but discovering that from various causes the locality was unsuitable, Phillip sought along the coast for a more fitting place and this he found a few miles to the north on the shores of that harbour which Cook had named Port Jackson without having any idea of its advantages. Among these were numerous well-sheltered bays, good anchorage close to the shore, abundance of fresh water, and plenty of dry, elevated land around the coves suitable for building purposes. To this port the Governor decided to remove the settlement. As the fleet, with this intention in view, was leaving Botany Bay, two ships were seen coming in, which proved to be the exploring expedition sent out by the French Government, under the command of La Perouse, a navigator who had already made a reputation as an ocean explorer and who was destined after leaving Botany Bay to dis-

appear for ever with all his company from the eyes of civilized men. His fate remained a mystery for many years; but it was eventually accepted, from traces of wreckage that were discovered, that the expedition perished on the rocks of one of the New Hebrides. Before departing for his last voyage, La Perouse spent about six weeks in Botany Bay, and there Father Receveur, the naturalist of the expedition, died. His tomb, on the north head of the bay, and a monument erected near it, long afterwards, by the officers of two French war vessels, commemorate the visit of the French navigator to the land where he was last seen by men of the white race.

It was the 25th of January, 1788, as Phillip and his ships anchored in the virgin waters of Port Jackson, and on the day following—the 26th—a date that will bear repeating and which is destined to be remembered as long as the Anglo-Saxon race continues to exist in Australia as that of its first establishment on Australian soil—their passengers, bond and free, to the number of about 1030 persons, were landed. From the very outset it was provided that the most depraved in mind and the decayed in body of these should be practically without an opportunity to continue their species, so that the first germs of the Australian people were derived from those fairly vigorous and decent in mind and constitution.

The site chosen was where a small stream of pure water entered an inlet on the southern side of the port. This little cove, as well as the settlement that grew around it, was called after Lord Sydney, the Minister who had authorized the establishment of the colony; while the creek that flowed into it became known as the Tank Stream. For years it provided the water required for the infant settlement; but in process of time it was destroyed by the buildings that were erected on it.

Of the site of the settlement as it existed on the day the colony was founded an eye-witness wrote:

"The spot chosen was at the top of a snug cove, near a run of fresh water, which stole silently along, through a very thick wood, which was then for the first time since the creation, disturbed by the rude sound of the labourer's axe and the downfall of its inhabitants. Its stillness and tranquillity were from that day to give place to the voice of labour, the confusion of camps and towns and the busy hum of its new possessors."

CHAPTER XX

THE EXTENT OF THE COLONY ITS RULER'S TASK AND CHARACTER

The territory that was for a period of four years to be under the control of Phillip comprised about one-half of the mainland of Australia and included, besides, what was shown at that time as an extension of the continent to the most southerly point of Van Diemen's Land. Attached also to Phillip's government were a number of islands in the Pacific. Vast as this area was, it was still somewhat less in extent than that under the jurisdiction of one of his successors; but it, nevertheless, comprised nearly the whole of the expanse that was to be divided into five self-governing States, three of which were to be equal in area to empires in Europe.

Saving for points on the coast that had been visited by sailors of Holland and by Cook for Great Britain, the whole of this immense territory was wholly unknown. The vast bulk of it so remained when Phillip, who had landed with full authority to explore it, eventually retired from the arduous and well-attempted task of occupying and ruling the small section of its area that lies adjacent to the part of the eastern coast where he had wisely determined to place the seat of government.

The record of the early years of the colony he founded there, was one of trials and difficulties of the most serious character and such as would have daunted and overcome a leader who was not possessed in an eminent degree of judgment and resolution.

In the preparations for the voyage, in his successful control and care of the large number of persons that were safely borne by his fleet over five thousand leagues of ocean, some foretaste was given of the character of the man who was to be the guiding and compelling force in the opening years of the infant settlement. In his removal of the settlement to Port Jackson and to the particular site that he chose on the shores of that harbour, Phillip's judgment has received the approval of time and experience. Phillip himself had no doubt as to the wisdom of his choice; for he described Port Jackson as without exception the finest harbour in the universe and, at the same time, the most secure. But the determining of the site for the settlement,

though a great step, was only the introduction to work that was to tax his ability and firmness continuously. He had the control of seven hundred and fifty convicts, many of whom were of a brutal and debased type, and for the proper keeping and restraint of these criminals he had to depend on a body of marines largely recruited, at that period, from a low and ruffianly section of the community of Britain. Phillip found towards the close of his time in the colony, there was little if any improvement in the conduct of the men of the New South Wales Corps, who relieved the marines in the year 1791 and who had been raised by Major Grose for service in the colony. It may well be understood that troops specially enlisted for service in a distant and convict colony would not come from the best of the English population, and their officers from the outset seemed bent on showing that they had other objects in view than those connected with their military duties. Under the control of them and their men came 1500 convicts, in what was known as the "Second Fleet," the whole making the population of the colony more than double what it was before their arrival and thus involving more trouble and responsibility for the Governor, whose time was seldom free from some of the manifold cares of his autocracy. He had to control the relations between the blacks and the whites; to provide for the administration of justice and for the civil government of the community; but the most pressing and constant care was that of providing food for the subsistence of the settlement. This was truly the great task in a land far removed from any country where provisions could be obtained and in which men with a knowledge of the cultivation of the soil were exceedingly scarce; for it is a noteworthy circumstance that among the hundreds of criminals and soldiers under his rule, men of the farming class were with few exceptions conspicuous by their absence. But food had to be obtained and, though in the most scanty quantities, it was provided sufficiently to prevent starvation. Obviously, where provisions could only be obtained from external sources, at long intervals, it was imperative, even with inefficient labour, that the cultivation of the soil should be undertaken. Phillip found that the country was entirely without native plants that would serve for the food of Europeans, and as his people were suffering severely from scurvy, a disease that often attacks those who are forced to live on salt provisions, it was necessary that steps should promptly be taken to grow such

vegetables as were urgently required and to establish farms for the production of a permanent supply of food. But it was found that the soil in the neighbourhood of the settlement was either of a sandy or rocky nature and generally unsuitable for farming purposes. However, the Governor was not discouraged and determined to do the best he could under the circumstances. His thoughts promptly turned to the Pacific Island that he had been particularly instructed to lose no time in occupying. Accordingly, scarcely were the ceremonies and immediate operations connected with the founding of the colony completed, than he despatched Lieutenant King with a force of soldiers and convicts to take possession of the island and to establish at the earliest moment farms for the production of some of the food required for the needs of the parent settlement.

CHAPTER XXI

THE FARM SETTLEMENTS

Lieutenant King found that the soil of Norfolk Island was quite equal to the account given of it by Captain Cook, the discoverer of the island. He did not delay to begin to make use of it, and by devoting very careful attention to the matter, he was able after a few years to commence sending grain and vegetables to Sydney ; but at first it took all he could produce to supply the necessities of his own people.

The first attempt at farming on the mainland was made at the head of the little inlet of Port Jackson, named, on this account, Farm Cove, and on land there which afterward became the site of the Botanical Gardens. There, nine acres of land were quickly brought under cultivation ; but, as the soil was very poor, the crops obtained went but a small way to supply the necessities of the population.

Happily, land of a better quality was discovered about fourteen miles from the settlement, at a place the Governor called Rose Hill, after one of the Secretaries of the Admiralty. Close to the farming operations that began in this situation, Phillip laid down in July, 1790, the lines of a regular town, which, on the 4th of June of the following year, he called Parramatta, that being the

blacks' name of the locality. He provided for a main street of one mile in length, with a breadth of two hundred and five feet. The results, however, of the farming work around Rose Hill were by no means calculated to ensure that a town built on such a scale would ever be required ; for though the soil was found to be much superior to that nearer Sydney, it was far from being of a productive character. This comparative want of fertility was unfortunately aggravated by a long period of dry weather and the want of skill on the part of the labourers. From these circumstances, it came to pass that the wants of the colonists were much greater than all the supplies that could be furnished by the different farming localities, and Phillip plainly saw and did not hesitate to inform the Secretary of State that whatever might be the extent of land laid out for farming, the colony would never be able to produce sufficient food for its people till there were others than convicts and their military guards engaged in agriculture ; but nothing was done in this matter for several years.

CHAPTER XXII

THE LIVE-STOCK DIFFICULTIES

To the difficulties that Phillip had to contend with in the matter of vegetable productions were added those of the want of a sufficient supply of live stock. The First Fleet had brought out some of each kind of domestic animal, but as famine soon pressed sorely on the settlement, more cattle were killed for food than were replaced by the natural increase. Hence, instead of multiplying, the stock brought by the First Fleet gradually decreased in number, so that in the month of May, 1788, there were only two bulls and five cows in the colony. Of these, through some neglect on the part of their keeper, all but one cow escaped into the bush, where no trace of them was found for many years. The remaining cow was killed a few months later, so that towards the end of the first year of its existence, the colony was absolutely without horned cattle. To aggravate this unfortunate position, a large proportion of the domestic animals of other kinds was destroyed by the convicts, early in the year

1790. Importations, principally from the Cape of Good Hope and India, somewhat improved this state of affairs; nevertheless, in the year 1792, shortly before his departure for England, Phillip was only able to report that the colony possessed 23 cattle, 11 horses, 105 sheep, and 13 pigs. The same report showed that there were but 1703 acres of land under cultivation.

Such were the best results the Governor could produce after four years of patient and earnest attention to the pastoral and agricultural requirements of his people. A similar quantity of live stock and cultivated land is now often found in the possession of a single substantial farmer; yet, in the year 1792, such was the entire pastoral and farming wealth of the community of 3500 persons who then formed the population of the colony.

CHAPTER XXIII

EXPLORATIONS AROUND THE SETTLEMENT AND ON AND NEAR THE COAST OF AUSTRALIA

The land suitable for agricultural purposes, around the shores of Port Jackson, was from the outset seen to be quite inadequate to provide sufficient food for the needs of the settlement and, apart from his desire to know something of the country he was governing, Phillip felt the urgent necessity to find more territory adapted for farming production.

As we have seen, Lieutenant King was despatched almost immediately after the founding of the colony to occupy Norfolk Island; but it was not only to secure the benefit of its productive soil, but also to occupy it against the suspected designs of a foreign power.

Phillip himself started out on the 2nd of March, 1788, to explore the bay that Cook had thought existed amongst some broken country about fifteen miles north of Port Jackson. This inlet, named Broken Bay in accordance with its character and that of the surrounding country, was duly entered; but no land suitable for farming was seen. Neither was any found, about a month later, during the course of a toilsome journey made by Phillip from Shell Beach, near the site of the future marine suburb of Manly, to the part of Broken Bay which

he named Pittwater. Three days were occupied in this undertaking; though at present the distance may be traversed in less than an hour. On this journey the Governor saw Narrabeen Lagoon, which he erroneously considered was a large lake. He also observed away on the western horizon, the range which, later on, he named the Blue Mountains, and concluded that "a large river would be found issuing from them." This idea induced him to explore the country to the westward of Port Jackson. He started out from near Parramatta and found some good country; but did not discover the expected river, though he must have gone very close to it. In the following year more success attended another attempt to find the hoped-for river. Walking overland from the harbour beach of what was to be Manly, Phillip's party took boats that had been sent round to Broken Bay and proceeded to search for the expected river, at the western head of the southerly part of the bay. There, the entrance of the stream was duly found; but though its course was examined for some twenty miles, the expedition returned to Port Jackson, without discovering any land on its banks that was adapted for settlement. A third trip was made through the bush to Pittwater, but this time in five hours. From Pittwater the party proceeded up the river in boats, sent round to the bay, as in the former case, and this time landing beyond where the last journey had terminated, the country beyond the steep hills through which the river had run to its entrance into the bay was found to be more level and, to the satisfaction of the explorers, a considerable area of good farming land was found. This, with that in the vicinity of Port Jackson, Phillip estimated would be sufficient to provide the colony with all the grain and vegetables that would be required till its population was materially increased. The river received the name of the Hawkesbury and its discovery, together with that of the agricultural land on its banks, was one of the most important events of the time.

About the same date, Captain Tench, starting out from Rose Hill, discovered a stream which he declared was nearly as broad as the Thames at Putney. The Governor, when this was reported to him, named the river the Nepean. It was, subsequently, discovered to be an upper part of the Hawkesbury; but both names are, for the respective portions of the stream, preserved in use to this day.

Two attempts were made to cross the mountain barrier that

everywhere shut in the territory just beyond the Nepean; but both of them ended in failure, and the nett result of the inland explorations made up to the end of Phillip's governorship was that the character of the country extending from the south shores of Botany Bay to the southern portion of Broken Bay, and from the Pacific Ocean to the western and south-western bank of the Nepean-Hawkesbury, had become fairly well known. In this area there was abundance of soil if it was properly farmed, suitable for the growing of all the grain and vegetables required by the small population of the period; but without much clearing, the land of poorer quality was insufficient for the rearing of stock in numbers. Whilst Phillip and his lieutenants undertook their explorations in the country surrounding the settlements, a number of discoveries were made on and at some distance from the coasts of Australia, of which the most noteworthy were the sighting of Lord Howe's Island by Lieutenant Ball when on his way to Norfolk Island; Jervis Bay entered by the captain of the ship *Atlantic* and the finding and exploration of King George's Sound by Captain Vancouver. Some months after the last-mentioned discovery, or in April, 1792, Rear-Admiral Bruni D'Entrecasteaux, in command of the French ships *Recherche* and *Espérance* sent out in search of La Perouse, arrived on the south coast of the continent and left traces of his visit in the names he gave to various portions of the seaboard, such as D'Entrecasteaux Point, Espérance Bay, and the Archipelago de Recherche on the south coast of West Australia, together with Recherche Bay, D'Entrecasteaux Channel, and Bruni Island on the southerly front of Tasmania.

CHAPTER XXIV

THE BLACKS AND THE WHITE NEW-COMERS

In the first days of the colony's existence some doubt was experienced as to the attitude of the natives towards the intruders into their country; but it was quickly perceived that they were unlikely to attempt any active opposition and that even if they did they were totally unable to offer a serious resistance: but whilst they refrained at the outset from displaying hostility, they showed no disposition to welcome the whites, but received

them rather with shouts of "Warra! Warra!" or, "Go away! Go away!" In time, however, the blacks abandoned their almost passive attitude for one of active hostility. No doubt there were causes for this. There were such in the case of the relations between the Maories and the whites, and it has been so in nearly every instance where civilized men have come in contact with primitive races. Whatever were the causes for the quarrels with the Port Jackson blacks, the consequences were serious for them, since every injury they inflicted on the goods or persons of the whites was avenged by the ruthless destruction of their lives. From this cause, as well as from the effects of the diseases and intoxicating drinks the new-comers introduced amongst them, a rapid lessening of their numbers began, and in time this was to be observed over the whole face of the country. As there was to be no cessation of this decrease, even when violence was no longer resorted to by the whites, within a little more than a hundred years after Phillip's landing the appearance of an aboriginal was to become a rare and ever increasingly rare sight throughout an immense part of the country where his ancestors had roamed in undisputed possession for countless years and, perhaps, for ages.

There were when Phillip landed, according to an estimate made a little later on, about 1500 aboriginals between Pittwater and Botany Bay. In his relations with them the Governor displayed a mixture of kindness and firmness; whilst only in very exceptional cases did he resort to stern measures of punishment for offences which were generally the result of the interference of the whites. Phillip, as well as other competent observers, had a very much higher opinion of the blacks than that given by Dampier of the natives of the north-western coast, who, as we have seen, were placed by him on the lowest plane of the scale of humanity.

CHAPTER XXV

PHILLIP RESIGNS AND DEPARTS—EVENTS OF THE INTERREGNUM

Phillip finished his labours in the colony towards the close of the year 1792, and when he departed, he bore with him the title of the "Father," as he was the "Founder" of the settlement.

His services to Australia well deserved that his name should be remembered, and this was recognized a century later by the erection of a statue, in the midst of a symbolical group, placed in the upper part of the Botanical Gardens where it overlooks the harbour and that Farm Cove round which he established the first farm on Australian soil, and where if an inanimate object could appreciate the beauty of the scene, it might rejoice to be located in one of the loveliest of many lovely spots that are to be found on the shores of Port Jackson.

As Phillip's resignation was unexpected, it was a considerable time ere his successor arrived and, in the interval, Major Grose, the senior officer of the military forces, assumed the position of Acting-Governor, which he continued to hold till December, 1794, when, leaving for England, Captain Paterson, the next in command, undertook the administration of affairs till Phillip's regular successor arrived in the month of September of the following year.

The interval covered by the administration of Grose and Paterson is known as the Interregnum. During this time, the officers of the New South Wales Corps assumed powers and privileges they were in no way entitled to. In particular, they made themselves notorious by a practical monopoly of the traffic in rum and by the open manner in which they took possession of the convict women; whilst their subordinates copied their example to the full extent of their power and opportunities, and of them, generally, one of the few officers who endeavoured to maintain some decency of conduct amongst them, remarked that they required more looking after than the convicts they were in charge of.

In the midst of this gloomy state of social affairs an element of hope was infused into the life of the colony by the arrival of a number of free settlers; for remembering the warning that had been given by Captain Phillip, the Government in Great Britain succeeded in inducing, in the year 1793, some free settlers to emigrate to the colony. At first these people located themselves a little to the eastward of Parramatta, on some fairly level country which they called Liberty Plains; but in the following year they proceeded to the more fertile soil on the banks of the Hawkesbury. In addition to small grants of land they received a supply of convict labourers who were for two years clothed and fed at the expense of the Government. This was

the beginning of the system of assigning convict servants ; but, later on, the applicants for such labourers had to provide for their maintenance. In addition to the agriculturists who arrived in the colony without compulsion, there were a number of persons who were known as the " Scotch Martyrs " who were transported for giving expression to political opinions which would, according to the ideas of a later time, have been considered just and reasonable. These people were not kept under restraint on arrival and were allowed and even encouraged to take up land for farming purposes. They formed a valuable addition to the population, and the pity is that there were not more of them or like them.

CHAPTER XXVI

GOVERNOR HUNTER—EVENTS OF HIS TIME

Weary of the licence of the military, the small body of inhabitants of the colony who had some interest in the good government of their adopted country hailed with pleasure the arrival of Captain John Hunter, R.N., in September, 1795, to take over the governorship. Hunter was not a stranger to the colony. He had been second to Phillip, in charge of the *Sirius*, the flagship of the first fleet. He disappointed most of the hopes of the friends of the colony ; for he proved a man of weak disposition and quite incapable of controlling the soldiery. His intentions were of the best ; but his want of resolution rendered almost useless the measures he wished to have adopted for the improvement of the shameless moral and social conditions of the bulk of the people ; for against his good intentions was the set purpose of the military that there should be no reform, and they, in particular, frustrated his desire to suppress the traffic that was being carried on by them in rum to the destruction of the interests and morals of the community. Not satisfied with opposing the Governor's policy in the settlement, the officers proceeded to try to injure him by sending complaints to London, and, after he had been five years in the colony, their efforts were successful and he was recalled to England.

His governorship was not alone troubled by a disaffected and licentious soldiery ; for amongst the prisoners sent out in his

time was a body of Irishmen transported for the part they had taken in the Rebellion in Ireland of 1798. From information he received, Hunter was satisfied that these exiles contemplated a rising against the Government. However, during his term of office their intentions in that direction, if they really had such, were confined to threats and occasional outbreaks of little significance. Except that they were bound by the ties of a common nationality, their conduct was in no way remarkable; for the history of the colony under Hunter's rule was one of chronic licence, crime, and punishment; but little relieved, at intervals, by some small achievements in the establishment of a few industries, such as whale fishing on the coast, timber getting, and a windmill for flour making. Perhaps more important than these results was the arrival in the year 1795 of some more farmers, who located themselves, near the former arrivals, on the Hawkesbury, where the united efforts of the settlers began to be plainly evident in substantial supplies of grain and vegetables.

CHAPTER XXVII

DISCOVERIES ON THE COAST—BASS STRAITS

Of much more consequence than the economic gains under Hunter's administration were the results achieved in the field of geographical research. Of considerable importance amongst these were a series of discoveries made by Lieutenant Shortland, who in the year 1795, when returning from Port Stephens where he had gone in pursuit of some sea-robbers, who were in the habit of seizing the goods of those who traded between the Hawkesbury and Port Jackson, noticed an opening in the coast-line, near an isolated steep, rocky hill that in after years became known as Nobbys. Entering through this opening, he found a fine stream, which he explored for a considerable distance from its mouth, proving it navigable as far as he went. In honour of the Governor, he called it the Hunter; whilst two navigable tributaries that flowed into it from the northward, he named after William Patterson, the Lieutenant-Governor—the William and the Paterson. The former name was afterwards altered to that of the Williams.

Of very great value was another discovery made during this visit by Shortland, who observed, near the mouth of the Hunter, several coal seams, which, as early as the year 1799, began to be worked. Simultaneously with the opening of these mines were erected the first structures on the site of the future city of Newcastle, so called after the great English coal town of that name. But Shortland's discovery of coal was not the only one made in the colony; for in the year 1797 a number of shipwrecked sailors proceeding northward along the coast to Sydney from where their vessel had been lost, noticed coal seams in the face of the cliffs at the place now called Coal Cliff.

In other directions exploration was successfully undertaken. Jervis Bay, which, as we have previously noted, was discovered by the Captain of the *Atlantic*, was entered and named by Lieutenant Bowen.

An explorer who attained to greater fame was George Bass. Accompanied by a midshipman, named Matthew Flinders, also destined to achieve renown, he explored in an open boat called the *Tom Thumb*, on account of its smallness, the coast-line southward of Port Jackson. He examined Georges River, a stream flowing into Botany Bay, and entered a lagoon in the Illawarra district which he called by the name of his boat. But ambitious of more extensive explorations, Bass prevailed on the Governor to lend him a whale-boat and, with a crew of six volunteers, he set out on a longer southerly voyage, in the year 1798.

It had long been suspected that Van Diemen's Land was separated by a strait from the mainland; but no one had more than judged this by the strong current that swept past the most northerly point that had been sighted of the land discovered by Tasman, and the fact that the coast trended away to the westward of that point was not convincing, for it might only indicate a wide bay. Bass wished to settle the matter definitely. On his way south, he discovered Shoal Haven and the river of the same name that flows into it. He entered Twofold Bay and discovered the fine harbour of Western Port, some distance west of Wilson's Promontory, which he ascertained by his next discovery was the most southerly point of the continent. As the coast still trended away to the westward and as there was in that direction, out from the land, open ocean extending beyond the known longitude of the west coast of Van Diemen's Land, it was

plain that what Tasman and Cook had taken to be a portion of south-eastern Australia, or New Holland, was separated from the mainland by a wide passage of water; for nowhere as far as the eye could reach, southward, was there any appearance of land. On his return to Sydney, Bass reported this to the Governor, who named the passage thus made known after its discoverer, Bass Straits.

In the course of another expedition, Bass and his associate, Flinders, made assurance of the insular character of the island doubly sure by circumnavigating it, and in so doing they discovered some of the islands in Bass Straits, the largest of which received the name of Flinders Island after that of one of the explorers. They also entered the Tamar River, in Van Diemen's Land, and named its estuary Port Dalrymple.

Some time after his return to Sydney from this expedition, Flinders, without the companionship of Bass, who had left the colony, explored the coast northward of Port Jackson to Hervey Bay. Though he was in and named the inlet known as Shoal Bay and also in Moreton Bay, he did not discover the Clarence that flows into the one, nor the Brisbane which empties into the other, and on his return he reported that no rivers of importance were to be found between Shoal Bay and Hervey Bay.

CHAPTER XXVIII

GOVERNOR KING—THE RUM-TRAFFICKING OFFICERS

A THIRD naval captain, in the person of Philip Gidley King, replaced Captain Hunter as Governor in the year 1800 and continued in that office till 1806.

Like his predecessor, he had had previous experience in New South Wales before becoming its ruler. He it was who, very soon after the founding of the colony, was despatched by Governor Phillip to form the subordinate penal settlement at Norfolk Island, where he remained for a considerable time in command as superintendent and then as Lieutenant-Governor, and in each capacity obtained the reputation of being a capable ruler.

The difficulty experienced by the late Governor in controlling the Irish political prisoners pressed upon King's attention very soon after he took up the reins of government; for these men were justly indignant at being treated as criminals and their resentment finally culminated on the 4th of March, 1804, in an armed outbreak. This occurred at Castle Hill,[1] a place a little to the west of Parramatta. It was only quelled when Major Johnston, at the head of fifty soldiers, attacked and captured the rebellious force. After their surrender, six of the prisoners, who were deemed to be the ringleaders, were shot and forty others were sentenced to hard labour in the Newcastle mines.

The fact that Governor King had had to rely on the military to put down the Irish revolt did not tend to lessen the power of the soldiery, nor the opinion they held of themselves, and when at the same time they were confronted by a Governor who had come out with the firm intention of restricting the irregularities brought about by their rum-selling propensities, they met him with bitter opposition. This is little to be wondered at, for the officers were making such enormous profits from the rum traffic that it was said they were in the habit of selling the liquor at as many pounds per gallon as they paid shillings for it. They also dealt with other classes of goods and in each case practised similar extortion. As the Governor continued to endeavour to restrain their actions in these matters, the officers acted to him with his superiors in England as they had done to Governor Hunter, and as their influence was great their complaints, however unfounded, were sure to be considered. Eventually they were successful, partly through the presence in England of Captain Macarthur, and thus another Governor was removed from the colony for endeavouring to improve the manners, morals, and condition of its people.

CHAPTER XXIX

THE FOUNDING OF THE AUSTRALIAN WOOL INDUSTRY

Captain Macarthur, who in the matter of the military and the rum traffic had closely identified himself with the interests of the officers and had in that way acted against the interests of

[1] Or Toongabbie.

the colony, was one of the very few men of his profession who did not rest content with obtaining huge profits from the sale of spirits and other merchandise which their positions gave them opportunities to monopolize. He had come out in Phillip's time as a lieutenant of the New South Wales regiment and, with the other officers of the corps, received from the Acting-Governor a grant of land. He was a man of enterprise and used his farms for experimenting in the breeding of stock. He obtained a number of hairy Bengal sheep and some of the coarse-wooled Irish breed. In the progeny of the two kinds, he obtained a species of sheep which produced fleeces of mingled hair and wool. In the year 1797, he succeeded in obtaining from the Cape of Good Hope five ewes and three rams of the celebrated Merino breed. These he kept carefully apart from the inferior kinds in his possession and had soon the satisfaction of seeing them rapidly increase in numbers; whilst the character and quantity of their fleeces were so excellent that when, in the year 1803, he had occasion to visit England, the specimens of them which he exhibited were such as to favourably impress the Government and manufacturers there and to move them to endeavour to assist him in his efforts to promote the growth of wool in the colony. With that object in view, Lord Camden, the Secretary of State, gave him authority to obtain a grant of 10,000 acres of land in the colony and sent out two young men, skilled in wool sorting, to make that business understood amongst the settlers.

Governor King was much pleased to hear of the interest taken by the Secretary of State in these matters and he did not fail to make known his satisfaction. Though on bad terms with Macarthur he did all he could to promote that gentleman's sheep farming by allowing him to choose one hundred of the finest-wooled sheep from the Government flocks. Still, he considered the concession of 10,000 acres was unnecessarily liberal and, accordingly, reduced the area of the grant to 5000 acres, but made no restriction as to the locality of the grant. Macarthur, in consequence, picked the fine country in the valley of the Nepean, which surrounds the present town of Camden, a name he gave to his estate in honour of the minister who had caused it to be granted. The Camden estate adjoined some equally fine land on the Cowpasture River that had been reserved for Government stock by Governor Hunter.

Governor King's assistance to the wool-growing industry was not confined to the aid he gave to Captain Macarthur; for he employed the Rev. Mr. Marsden, who had gained the reputation of being one of the best agriculturists and sheep farmers in the colony, together with Mr. Wood, one of the wool sorters, to inquire into the state of all the flocks in the settlement. From the result of their labours, it was found that the example set by Mr. Macarthur was producing good results and that the fleeces of numbers of flocks had been improved and were improving greatly.

Whilst Governor King is entitled to some credit for the part he took in bringing this about, it is beyond question that to Mr. Macarthur is due the honour of being the founder and father of the wool-growing industry. He may also claim another honour; for anticipating, when he was in England, that there would be a difficulty, owing to the want of ships regularly trading to the colony, to get his wool carried to the English market, he arranged for a vessel to make one trip from Sydney every eighteen months with his clips. Such was the humble origin of the great wool-exporting trade, a business which was one day to task the carrying capacity of fleets of the largest vessels.

CHAPTER XXX

AGRICULTURE UNDER KING

Whilst the steps narrated were being taken to ensure success in the sheep-growing industry, the Governor did not neglect the interests of agriculture. Wherever he found an industrious farmer making the most of his land, he gave him more, but on such conditions that the land could not be sold or given away, but must descend to the children of the settler. He also decided on establishing reserves, or commons, in each agricultural locality for the purpose of affording the farmers space for the pasturage of their stock. The want of such an advantage was felt, too late, by the settlers on the banks of the Hawkesbury, who, in a short time, found their farms along the river cut off from pastoral land by other farms at the back of theirs.

In the early years of agriculture in the colony the use of the

plough was almost unknown, and it was only after the advantages of the employment of that implement had been repeatedly pointed out to the farmers that Governor King was able to report "that the plow is now used by many and from its evident advantages will in time be preferred to the hoe." This was in the year 1806.

In his constant attention to the interests of those engaged in farming, the Governor had much to contend with. He found like his predecessors that the convicts who formed the great bulk of the working class of the community were so ill adapted to farming pursuits that he felt compelled to bitterly complain of the difficulty of making farmers out of pickpockets, and he saw that the general prevalence of rum as an article of exchange promoted such an excessive use of that liquor amongst the labouring class, especially amongst those of them engaged in farming, that dissipation often destroyed their energies and ruined their chance of prosperity. In referring to this state of affairs, Colonel Collins wrote "that their crops were no sooner gathered than they were instantly disposed of for spirits which were purchased at the rate of three, and even four pounds per gallon." He also gives another reason for the want of success of numbers of those engaged in agriculture when he says, "Many of the inferior farmers were nearly ruined by the high prices they were obliged to give for such necessaries as they required from those who had long been in the habit of monopolizing every article brought to the settlement for sale, a habit which it was found impossible to get rid of without the direct and positive interference of the Government at home." The monopolists he here refers to were, as under his predecessor, chiefly the officers of the New South Wales Corps.

Fortunately for the colony, there were some of the settlers who did not become corrupted by the prevailing dissipation, and by these the quantity of land under crop was raised to a respectable amount.

It is indeed somewhat surprising considering the accounts that have been handed down of the bad social condition of many of the farmers, that there were then about 12,000 acres of land under cultivation and that the colony contained horses, cattle, sheep, and pigs to the total number of 35,500. Amongst this stock was included a considerable herd of cattle, pastured on the banks of the Cowpasture River. This herd was the progeny

of a few animals that had escaped from the settlement at Rose Hill, in Governor Phillip's time. The truant animals had wandered to the good grass on the Cowpasture and there had multiplied.

In fact, when Governor Hunter, who was exploring the basin of the Nepean during the year 1796, came across the survivors of the strayed animals and the progeny of the truants, he found that the herd then numbered sixty. He named the tributary of the Nepean, where the animals were grazing, from the circumstance that the beasts had made it their feeding ground and, approving the choice the cattle had made in this matter, he proclaimed the country for some distance round the Cowpasture, a Government stock reservation, and there the animals under constant supervision continued to further multiply till the herd, at the close of King's governorship, had attained substantial proportions, but when in this condition, it was judged that the constant inbreeding of the animals had so deteriorated their quality as to make them a menace to the surrounding stock. In consequence of this opinion the whole of these cattle were promptly destroyed. Probably this was attributable to Mr. Macarthur, whose Camden property adjoined the stock reservation, and who had, therefore, reasonable cause for anxiety for the safety of the breed of valuable cattle, which he had sought to produce and desired to maintain.

Though Governor King had spared no effort to improve the pastoral and agricultural productions of the colony, and had, despite the prevalence of intemperance and other impediments, made such progress as at least gave hopes for the future, an event occurred in the closing year of his term that brought the colony for the time to the verge of ruin. This calamity was the almost total destruction by a great flood of the crops on the Hawkesbury River, where the bulk of the vegetable food required for the community was produced. This misfortune was a great blow to the ruler who had zealously endeavoured to make the primary productions of the colony meet its requirements. Though this had been his intention, yet the available resources were substantially reduced during his term in Sydney. Under his care, the settlement at Norfolk Island had been established and had gradually become the scene of a considerable amount of successful farming; but no sooner was he appointed Governor on the mainland than he confirmed the report of his predecessor that

the island settlement was an encumbrance, and though complaining of the want of success of agriculture on the mainland, he recommended the abandonment of the island dependency, and that at a time when it was in a particularly prosperous condition so far as the extent of its crops and live stock were concerned. These opinions were adopted in England, and thus New South Wales lost a considerable quantity of farmed land. On the other hand, almost at the same time another dependency was formed in which there was much land fitted for farming and grazing pursuits. This was in the island of Van Diemen's Land; still it was a considerable time before other pastoral and agricultural capabilities there became available to any extent.

CHAPTER XXXI

THE WORKING AND EXPORT OF COAL

It was during the early part of King's governorship that the coal deposits discovered in his predecessor's time began to be utilized and the mineral worked. As there was little demand for this fuel in the Sydney settlement, owing to the great abundance of wood, the Government seems to have considered that the chief value of the recently discovered mineral would come from its worth as an article for export. Accordingly, as early as the year 1801 a small vessel was despatched to the Cape of Good Hope with a cargo of coal which realized the enormous price of £6 per ton. In the year 1802 M. Peron, the naturalist of the French exploring ships *Géographe* and *Naturaliste*, relates that he saw several vessels in Port Jackson laden with coal for India and the Cape of Good Hope. But this export trade did not increase nor flourish for any length of time; for the total amount of coal taken from the mines continued for many years to be very small, and as time passed an increasing portion of this must have been used in Sydney by those who would prefer to burn coal rather than wood.

At first the business of mining for coal was entirely in the hands of the Government and was carried out by convicts working under the control of military guards. The number of these felon miners was considerably increased during the year 1801 by the

arrival of the forty Irish political prisoners sentenced to hard labour in the mines for the rebellious riot near Toongabbie; nevertheless, the results of the labours of the convict pitmen, whilst the mines continued to be worked by the Government, were small and unsatisfactory.

CHAPTER XXXII

DISCOVERY OF PORT PHILLIP—FLINDERS' EXPLORATIONS

Governor King, following the example of his predecessors, actively encouraged exploration, and during his term of office a considerable portion of the southern coast, beyond where Bass had reached, was discovered by Lieutenants Grant and Murray. To the latter of these belongs the honour of discovering Port Phillip, which he named Port King, after the Governor of the day: but this designation Captain King changed to Port Phillip, after the founder of the colony.

During King's governorship, Flinders added to the good work he had done under the preceding Governor. He had, after his voyage along the northerly part of the eastern coast, gone to England and there in recognition of the services he had rendered, the Admiralty appointed him to the command of the *Investigator*, a vessel specially fitted out for survey work, and with his command he was given instructions to examine and note the whole of the unsurveyed parts of the Australian coast. Flinders began his work on this mission on the north-west coast, where he entered and named King's Sound and Princess Charlotte Bay. He proceeded thence south to Cape Leeuwin, the intervening coast having, it appeared to him, been sufficiently charted. Passing round the Leeuwin, he sailed along the Australian Bight carefully noting its outline. Between the 8th of December, 1801, and the 9th of April, 1802, he saw and named all the important inlets on the South Australian coast, from the Bight to Encounter Bay. He may, therefore, be justly credited with being the discoverer of the South Australian coast. Off the entrance of the gulf, which he named St. Vincent's, he sighted and landed on the large island which, in consequence of the large number of marsupials he saw there, he called Kangaroo Island, a name that in after years would have been meaningless, since it is related that

as far back as the year 1827 no kangaroos were to be found on the island. However, when Flinders was there not only were kangaroos to be seen in numbers, but the shores were thronged with seals. Both of these species of animals displayed such extraordinary tameness that Flinders was convinced that he and his men were the first human beings that had ever been seen by them and that consequently he was the discoverer of the island. Commenting further on the tameness of the various animals and their absence of any fear of man, he states: "The seals seemed to be much the more discerning animals of the two; for their actions bespoke a knowledge of our not being kangaroos; whilst the kangaroos seemed to take us for seals."

Having completed his examination of the island, Flinders continued his easterly course, and at a short distance on his way he met the ship *Le Géographe*, under Captain Baudin, who had been exploring the coast from beyond Port Phillip to where he was met by the English navigator. It happened to be in a small bight in the coast, which Flinders, on account of the meeting with Baudin's ship, called Encounter Bay. The two explorers exchanged the information they had acquired, one giving a copy of the tracings he had made of the coast-line westward of Encounter Bay and the other, one that he had drawn of the seaboard eastward of that bay. But Flinders was by no means satisfied to accept Baudin's work as absolutely correct and, consequently, decided to examine the coast-line himself. In doing this, he considered that the French officer had overlooked the narrow entrance to Port Phillip; though Baudin had really not done so but had seen and passed through it six weeks before Flinders, who, in his turn, passed into the bay. Flinders was thus the third navigator who had been in Port Phillip within a little over two months, the first being its discoverer, Lieutenant Murray, who had been there ten weeks before Flinders arrived.

When Flinders had reached the point where he and Bass had left off when they had satisfied themselves that Van Diemen's Land was an island, he sailed for Sydney. Later on, he completed his services to the cause of Australian coastal discovery by surveying a large portion of the northern seaboard from the eastern shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria to Arnheim's Land and Melville Island. He, it was, who suggested the word "Australia" as the title of the whole continent, to the exclusion of the name of New Holland, and it is largely owing

to his determination in that important matter that the designation which the continent now bears came into general use. His own name is perpetuated in that of a river flowing into the Gulf of Carpentaria, as well as in that of the largest island in Bass Straits; whilst the channel between Kangaroo Island and York Peninsula is called after his vessel, Investigator Strait.

CHAPTER XXXIII

THE FRENCH IN AUSTRALIAN WATERS

Whilst so much was achieved in the exploration of Australasia by Flinders and other British sailors before him, it cannot be denied that a number of French navigators had done good work in the same direction. Thus, Marion du Fresne was in Tasmania in 1772, before any Englishman had seen the island, and in New Zealand two years after Cook's first voyage. La Perouse arrived in Botany Bay just as Governor Phillip was leaving it. D'Entrecasteaux, four years after the founding of the colony of New South Wales, explored part of the east and south-east of Van Diemen's Land; whilst Baudin did good service in the opening year of the nineteenth century by his examination of portions of the southern coast of Australia and Tasmania which had not previously been explored.

Whilst the two ships—the *Géographe* and *Naturaliste*—under the general command of Baudin, were in Port Jackson, their officers noticed with astonishment, and perhaps some pardonable jealousy, that quite a fleet of ships was assembled in the harbour and that amongst these were American trading vessels; ships loaded with coal for India and the Cape; strongly armed smuggling craft bound with goods for South America; traders for Vancouver, New Zealand, and the South Seas; together with whalers and sealers for the Southern Ocean and Bass Straits, and all this in a port that little more than fourteen years before was known only to the savages who frequented its virgin bays and primeval forests. Baudin's two vessels were in the harbour whilst Flinders was there after his return from his last southern expedition, and though England and France were at war at the time, the officers of the ships of the two nations exchanged courtesies and continued up

to the end of their stay in port to be on friendly terms; whilst the Governor, also, accorded to the French navigators a hospitable reception. The *Naturaliste* has left traces of her visit in the names of two capes, one on the south-west coast of Australia and the other on the east coast of Tasmania; whilst the visit of the *Géographe* is recalled by the name of a channel and bay on the west coast of the continent. The presence of these French ships in Australian waters was partly the cause of a result very different from any expected from their explorations by the French Government; for becoming anxious lest they might have some design of a colonizing character on the Tasmanian coast, where they had lingered for a good while; or on the south coast of the mainland, Governor King despatched expeditions to form settlements which would and did effectually forestall them. Yet, had the French been in a position to enforce it, they had an undoubted claim to Tasmania; for, in 1802, Holland, which was the country of Tasman, the discoverer of the island, was practically a province of France. Moreover, the French navigators, Marion du Fresnes and Crozet, had visited the island in the year 1772, which was before any Englishman had seen it. But whatever may have been the merits of the French claims, they were rendered fruitless by the Governor's policy, which he pursued still further in changing a number of the names that had been given to features of the coast by the French navigators; though, as we have shown, sufficient of them still remain along the Tasmanian and West Australian seaboards, to indicate the extent of the services Australia owes to sailors of France.

CHAPTER XXXIV

SETTLEMENT IN VAN DIEMEN'S LAND—THE FIRST NEWSPAPER AND THE DEPARTURE OF KING

Though fear of French designs on Van Diemen's Land and the southern coast of Australia had an important influence in promoting the colonization of those quarters, there was another reason that moved the Governor to action in the matter. As it had been decided to close the penal settlement at Norfolk Island, King was not inclined to bring the desperate criminals who

were detained there to New South Wales. He was, therefore, in want of a suitable place distant from the growing number of free settlers who, assisted by convicts of a much less brutalized character than those on Norfolk Island, were gradually occupying all the known good country around Port Jackson and the Hawkesbury River, a territory that at the time comprised, for settlement purposes, the colony of New South Wales. The Governor was satisfied that Van Diemen's Land and the territory of Port Phillip would meet the requirements of distance and suitability of land. In consequence, he sent Lieutenant Bowen, in the year 1803, with a considerable number of convicts and their guards to the Derwent River in the south of Van Diemen's Land. Bowen landed his people at a place called Risdon ; but the settlement at this site was not of long duration. A year later Colonel Paterson was sent with another expedition to the Tamar River, in the north of the island ; whilst a third one, under Colonel Collins, was sent direct from England to Port Phillip.

Collins landed his community near the mouth of the bay, in the locality afterwards known as Sorrento ; but on reporting to the Governor that the country around was unsuitable for settlement, King consented to the removal of the intended colony to Van Diemen's Land. On receipt of this permission, Collins without delay proceeded with his people to the banks of the Derwent, and there fixed upon a site for his community, at a place known as Sullivan's Cove. To that locality the convicts and their keepers at Risdon were also brought, and the joint encampment was the beginning of the settlement that grew into the present city of Hobart.

In addition to the criminals from Norfolk Island, there were in the settlement on the Tamar and Derwent a number of the Irish political prisoners who were considered by the Governor to be too difficult to control in New South Wales ; yet in after years most of these men who remained in the island proved themselves to be most excellent colonists.

The year 1804 is noteworthy in Australian history as that in which the first newspaper was published in the colony. This appeared under the name of the *Sydney Gazette and New South Wales Advertiser*. Its editor's name was Robert Howe, who is often termed the Father of the Press of the colony. His journal was chiefly a means of giving publicity to official proclamations, local news of the day and English intelligence of

the preceding year. It rarely ventured to criticize the acts of public men, for had it seriously attempted to do so, its career would have been short, for the days of a free Press were yet far off.

Two years after the appearance of this publication, the governorship of King came to a close; for, weary of his constant troubles with the military and disappointed at the result of his most earnest efforts for the progress of the community over which he ruled, he retired from his position in the year 1806 and departed for Europe.

CHAPTER XXXV

GOVERNOR BLIGH

Captain Bligh, the fourth successive naval officer in charge of the colony, arrived in Port Jackson to succeed Governor King on the 13th of August, 1806. He had been strongly recommended for the office by Sir Joseph Banks, who had since his visit with Captain Cook continued to take a great interest in the colony. Bligh had first been brought into prominence from his connection with the notorious mutiny of the *Bounty*. Whilst commander of that vessel he had ruled his men with such harshness that, when a short distance from the Society or Tahitian Islands, they rose in mutiny, overpowered him and his officers and took possession of the ship. Bligh, with those who adhered to him, was put into an open boat with water, provisions and some navigating instruments. The ship then sailed away leaving him and his forlorn party in a frail craft alone in the South Pacific. If the stern and overbearing conduct of the late commander of the *Bounty* had brought him to the pass he was in, a new character seemed to rise in him to confront the dangers of his position; for with a brave heart and a determined mind he successfully navigated the boat over the great distance of lonely ocean to the Portuguese Island of Timor, which was then the nearest European settlement. His attitude throughout in this trial was such as to make for him many friends; for few believe that a brave and resolute man is likely to be a tyrant whose brutality may drive men to mutiny.

The new Governor came to the colony with the determination to put down any disorder or opposition to his government with a strong hand; but the same fate that had overtaken his immediate predecessors in their attempts to reform the social and moral conditions of the people met his efforts from the outset. Like each of the Governors before him, he honestly meant to do his best to benefit the settlements and to end the deplorable state of affairs that arose from the abuse of the drink traffic. But he was rough in manner and speech and inclined to be equally so in his executive actions. In fact, his measures were hastily conceived and so impolitically enforced that a strong opposition to him developed which this time was not supported by the military alone, but received the aid of persons of wealth and influence in private life. The chief reason for this was that the Governor often showed a disposition when carrying out his policy to side with the poorer classes against the rich. Nothing could be more offensive than conduct of this kind to the pride of men who had been accustomed to consider themselves as the only rightful possessors of power and consideration in the colony, and when to the injuries he thus inflicted on the sensibilities of some he added that of reducing the profits of others, it is easy to understand that a very angry state of feeling would be created. The Governor's policy certainly did cause money losses to numbers of persons; for being particularly bitter against the manner in which the rum traffic was being conducted, he imposed severe restrictions on the traders in the liquor and yet, at the same time, he allowed people to freely buy it at the Government stores and to deal there, also, for other commodities which, but for this, would have been bought at private shops, though at very much higher rates. In so acting the Governor undoubtedly had the welfare of the people at heart; but good intentions avail little if not accompanied by judgment and foresight. Bligh's judgment was defective, or he would not have attempted rashly to pursue a policy that could only have succeeded gradually and under calm direction. He had little foresight, or he would have foreseen the danger of provoking the powerful opposition that was inevitable and that soon manifested itself in an emphatic manner.

CHAPTER XXXVI

THE ARREST OF MACARTHUR—THE DEPOSITION OF BLIGH

The opportunity for the prevailing discontent to burst into action presented itself through the prosecution of Captain Macarthur, who as a former officer in the New South Wales Corps and as a man of position in private life, commanded great influence not only with the military officers but amongst the leading people in civilian pursuits. He, though not directly concerned in the abuses of the liquor traffic, had from the outset of the trouble between the Governor and the officers sided strongly with the latter and, in consequence, was looked upon by Bligh as a dangerous opponent who should be coerced. Macarthur, it was considered by the Governor, had left himself open to attack, and for his reputed irregularities he was arrested. He was charged with detaining two still boilers against the express instructions of the Governor; of promoting disaffection; of using language calculated to bring the authority of the Judge-Advocate into contempt, and of allowing those who had formed the crew of one of his vessels to remain in Sydney contrary to the laws of the colony. Macarthur, when brought before the military tribunal, protested at once against the Judge-Advocate being allowed to adjudicate in the case, on the ground that that officer was concerned in the proceedings. But the Judge-Advocate declined to admit the objection on the ground that the court could not be constituted without him. The Governor upheld this contention and the suit was proceeded with. The defendant read a long protest against the manner in which the case was being dealt with, and this document was so disrespectful in tone to the Judge that he threatened to commit the defendant for contempt. At this, Captain Kemp, one of six officers, who, as magistrates, sat on the bench, exclaimed, "Not so, sir; I will commit you to gaol." Seeing, under these circumstances, that the trial was likely to be disturbed, the Judge-Advocate proclaimed the court adjourned and desired those present to disperse; but Kemp called out to the other officers, "Stay, stay, we are a court." The Judge having left, Macarthur cried, "Am I to be cast forth to the mercy of a set of armed ruffians, who are prepared to arrest me?"

The officers replied to him that they would protect him and directed some of their men, of whom a large number were present, to guard him.

On becoming aware of these proceedings, the Governor wrote to Major Johnston, the officer in command of the corps, desiring his presence; but Major Johnston, who lived at Annandale, about four miles away, returned a reply that he was too ill, either to come or write. Early on the following morning, Mr. Macarthur was rearrested on a warrant from the Judge-Advocate and three magistrates, and a memorial bearing the Judge's signature was sent to the Governor in which it was asserted that the action of the officers who had defied the Court and liberated a prisoner from custody amounted to treason and usurpation of the Government, and the Governor was asked to take what steps he thought necessary under the circumstances.

On receiving this document, the Governor issued a summons to each of the six officers to attend on the following day at the Government House to answer to the charges preferred against them and also wrote once more to Major Johnston urgently requesting his attendance; but that officer again excused himself on the plea of illness. Nevertheless, he came into town about five o'clock that day and proceeded to the military barracks. There, the officers and friends of Mr. Macarthur gathered round him and, representing the state of affairs to be very serious, endeavoured to persuade him to usurp the Government and place the Governor under arrest. This the Major at length consented to do. He commenced action by ordering the liberation of Mr. Macarthur from prison, who, immediately that he was free, proceeded to get up a petition to Major Johnston, requesting him, in the interest of the citizens, to place Governor Bligh under arrest and assume command of the colony. This petition was only signed by a few persons; but that was of little consequence to the officers, who had already decided to depose the Governor in favour of their leader. Accordingly, having assembled their regiment they marched at the head of it to the residence of Governor Bligh, in O'Connell Street, and entering they made search for him. After a little seeking they found him, apparently hiding in a back room, and immediately arrested him without encountering any resistance from him or his people.

It was on the 26th of January, 1808, just twenty years from the founding of the colony, that this rebellion took place. Bligh

was deposed and imprisoned by the military junta; whilst their leader, Major Johnston, assumed the functions of the deposed ruler under the title of Lieutenant-Governor, in which capacity he administered the affairs of the colony till the arrival from Van Diemen's Land of his superior officer, Colonel Foveaux, who in his turn retired in favour of Colonel Paterson, on the appearance of that officer from Port Dalrymple, where he had been acting as Lieutenant-Governor. This officer held possession of the reins of government till the end of the year.

During the period between his deposition and the arrival of his properly appointed successor, Captain Bligh was at first a prisoner in his own house; then for some time in close confinement in the military barracks; but was released on condition that he left the colony. Being freed, he considered that he was not strictly bound by the terms of a promise made to rebels, and going on board the man-of-war *Porpoise*, he assumed command of the ship by virtue of his seniority of naval rank and sailed for Van Diemen's Land, where were stationed two higher officers of the New South Wales Corps than Major Johnston, and these it might be fairly assumed would take a serious view of the action of their subordinates. But they took no action, and Bligh, evidently having some regard for his promise, remained on the coast of the island, or in one of its ports, hoping vainly from day to day to be re-established in his position of Governor by a rising of the people of New South Wales against the military or by the command of the authorities in England. The arrival, at length, of his duly appointed successor, Colonel Macquarie, put an end to his expectations and he left then for Great Britain, whither Major Johnston had already proceeded to seek an inquiry into his connection with the military revolt.

In one way, the rebellion against Governor Bligh did more good than harm, since from the inquiries that it caused it was decided that the New South Wales Corps should be removed from the colony. This was a step that should undoubtedly have preceded any attempts to suppress the abuses of the rum traffic; for seeing that it was chiefly the military men who were interested in perpetuating the abuses connected with it, there was no reason to believe that they would willingly support any Governor who had decided to suppress the abuses.

CHAPTER XXXVII

GOVERNOR MACQUARIE—HIS POSITION—HE FAVOURS THE EMANCIPISTS

Colonel Lachlan Macquarie, the regularly appointed successor to Governor Bligh, was the first ruler in the colony who had not come from the Navy. He assumed office in January, 1810, and remained at the head of affairs till the 1st of December, 1821, thus enjoying a period of nearly twelve years in power. He came out in command of the 73rd regiment, which had been detailed to relieve the New South Wales Corps. His military position rendered him much more independent in the exercise of his functions than his predecessors; for they had to depend on a force commanded by others, whose interests were not seldom contrary to those of the ruling Governor.

Unlike them, Governor Macquarie had no reason to fear when he needed the assistance of the military that his orders would be neglected; for even if the soldiers had been so disposed, they dared not disregard the commands of a Governor who was also their Colonel. Hence, the new Governor's power was established on a solid basis and, being a man of energy, he was in this advantageous position enabled to do much for the good of the colony.

He began by issuing two proclamations, in one of which he announced the King's displeasure at the recent mutinous proceedings in the colony, and in the other that all that had been done by the authority of those who had acted in Bligh's place was null and void. Nevertheless, where the enforcement of this proclamation would have caused an injury to innocent persons, the Governor specially sanctioned the acts of the usurping rulers. It was provided in the appointment of the Governor, that Captain Bligh should be reinstalled in the vice-regal office for one day; but as that officer was not in Sydney when Governor Macquarie arrived, he was solaced on his return to England with the appointment of rear-admiral, whilst Major Johnston was dismissed from the army and Mr. Macarthur was forbidden to return to the colony for eight years, and thus was the authority of the King upheld.

Up to Governor Macquarie's time the population of the colony mainly consisted of convicts and their guards, with but a few

free settlers here and there. It was the aim of the new Governor to increase the number of the last-mentioned class; but instead of promoting the immigration of free people, without any prison taint, he preferred to rely on persons who, after serving the whole or part of their sentences, had been emancipated. To encourage the members of this class to lift themselves above the debased condition which their former position still entailed on them, he gave all of them who requested it a grant of thirty acres of land, hoping they would settle on their grants and make use of them as producers; but most of them were incapable of appreciating their gifts and, instead of utilizing them as it was anticipated, they immediately proceeded to barter their grants away for liquor. It was mainly through this practice that some of the great estates in and near Sydney were built up; for there were persons always ready to buy all the grants that could be obtained under such circumstances. If the Governor had confined his favour in this matter to men who had shown by their recent conduct that they were desirous of leading a steady life, there is no reason to doubt but that good results might have accrued from his policy; but as it was at the cost of what were soon to be most valuable lands he only enabled numbers of persons of no character to possess the means to indulge in a round of dissipation. The Governor was, in fact, a much greater friend of the "Emancipists," as the freed convicts were called, than he was of immigrants who had come to the colony without the taint of crime; for these he rather discouraged in a variety of ways.

In his endeavours to reform the Emancipists the Governor was aided by his wife and, largely through her efforts, some of the ex-convicts reformed and thenceforth settled down to be fairly respectable members of the community.

As the arrival of further contingents of prisoners caused a rapid increase in the convict population, it became a task to the Governor to find means to keep them occupied. Numbers of them were assigned, or given over, to the free settlers and even to well-to-do emancipists, on very easy terms, a circumstance which, while it attracted to the colony persons with means to employ such labour, had an injurious effect in discouraging the voluntary immigration of men of the working class and of people of small capital but insufficient to enable them to employ labour on the lands they might have taken up with profit to the colony.

CHAPTER XXXVIII

THE GOVERNOR'S VANITY—HIS GENERALLY SUCCESSFUL ADMINISTRATION

When all claimants for assigned labourers had been fully supplied with them there were still a very large number of convicts to be disposed of. These the Governor made use of on public works, such as erecting buildings for Government purposes and making roads. For the number of buildings thus constructed Macquarie's regime is remarkable. He scattered them in every township of the colony, often without any real need for them. In fact, it seemed as though he believed he would leave his name to the grateful remembrance of posterity if it were to be seen engraved on the fronts of a host of important public edifices. His weakness in this respect also applied to the naming of natural features and utilities of the country. Thus, there were two rivers, a port, a harbour, plains, fields, a place, two great streets, and a lighthouse, that were called after him. In the public highways his convict labourers made, the Governor left a better memorial than in his buildings; for his roads were well constructed and settlement was greatly promoted by them. In this way he was responsible for an indisputable benefit to the community. Moreover, as he was a great traveller, he was enabled, through his highways, to inspect a large portion of the territory with comparative ease, and everywhere, as he proceeded, he marked out sites for new townships and routes for other roads, encouraging the settlers, as he went, to improve their holdings by a promise of Government aid and urging them also to explore the country beyond their neighbourhood.

He was not only absolute in power, but also in manner, and as prone to favour his friends as he was to be unduly antagonistic to those he considered his opponents, and amongst the latter were some of the most reputable and prominent residents of the colony. Nothing was more repugnant to the free colonists of this order than the inordinate partiality shown by Macquarie to ex-convicts, and they did not scruple, despite the Governor's power, to make their opinions of him known. Indirectly replying to these persons in a report he made after he had returned to England, he states:

"I found the colony barely emerging from infantile imbecility and suffering from various privations and disabilities; the country impenetrable about forty miles beyond Sydney; agriculture in a yet languishing state; commerce in its early dawn; revenue unknown; threatened by famine, distracted by faction; the public buildings in a state of dilapidation and mouldering to decay; the few roads formerly constructed rendered almost impassable; the population in general depressed by poverty; no public credit, nor private confidence; the morals of the great mass of the people in the lowest state of debasement, and religious worship almost totally neglected. Such was the state of New South Wales when I took charge of its administration on the 1st of January, 1810. I left it, in February last, reaping incalculable advantages from my extensive and important discoveries in all directions, including a way over the supposed insurmountable barrier, called the Blue Mountains, to the westward of which are situated the fertile plains of Bathurst and, in all respects, enjoying a state of private comfort and public prosperity."

If in making these statements the ex-Governor slightly exaggerated the evils he had found on his arrival in the colony and the prosperity in existence when he left it, there can be no doubt that much of his report was a fair statement of facts. During his time the population had increased threefold; farm land in a still greater degree and live stock had multiplied fully tenfold. The education of the children of the settlers was well provided for; thrift and trade were encouraged by the establishment of a savings-bank and one for general business—the Bank of New South Wales; whilst the sea-borne trade of the colony was greatly benefited by the establishment of the lighthouse on the south head of the entrance to Port Jackson. This structure is noteworthy as the first Pharos built on the Australian coast.

CHAPTER XXXIX

EXPLORATIONS IN GOVERNOR MACQUARIE'S TIME

One result of the Governor's encouragement of the colonists to find new country for settlement was that determined efforts were made to solve the long baffling problem of discovering a practic-

able route for crossing the Blue Mountains which, up to his time, had presented an impenetrable barrier to the extension of settlement westward. Eventually, in the autumn of 1813, Messrs. Blaxland, Wentworth, and Lawson set out from Penrith, a village on the Nepean, with the intention of seeking to pierce the barrier. Their policy was, while always having the west in view, to follow the higher ridges, rather than to ascend each range and go down into the valley on the further side. Keeping on the upper levels in this way, the three explorers at length arrived at a prominent height, which they named Mount York. From this elevation they beheld beneath them a fine valley through which flowed a considerable water-course—the only one of the least importance they had seen since leaving the Nepean. The following day they camped on the bank of this stream, now known as the Lett. There their eyes were rejoiced by the sight of luxuriant grass—a pleasant change from the poor and scanty herbage of the shallow soil on the rock-bound surface of the eastern slopes. The explorers were satisfied that they had met the beginning of the long sought for land beyond the mountains, and after proceeding from the valley as far as a hill which became known from one of them as Mount Blaxland, they returned to Sydney to report their success to the Governor, who immediately despatched Mr. Surveyor G. W. Evans to go over their trail and to continue on with exploration westward of the point where they had left off. Evans crossed the main range beyond Mount Blaxland and, descending its slopes, came to the head waters of a stream, which, on account of the quantity of fish it contained, he named the Fish River. He followed this water-course down till he arrived at the fertile tract of country since known as the Bathurst Plains.

When the Governor was apprised by Evans of the results of his expedition, he immediately caused the work of constructing a road over the route which the surveyor had mapped out to be started, and in the short period of less than two years the abundance of convict labour employed enabled a substantially built highway to be completed to the banks of a river running through the Bathurst Plains, which Evans had named the Macquarie. This stream is the result of the junction of two others—the Fish and Campbell rivers and, near the temporary terminus on its banks of the great road, the first humble structures of the future city of Bathurst began to arise.

Evans undertook a second expedition, in which he discovered a stream that he called, after Macquarie's Christian name, the Lachlan. The Governor, pleased to see his name given to these rivers, sent Mr. John Oxley, the Surveyor-General, to ascertain what became of them beyond where Evans had seen them. Oxley reported that both of them after flowing for a long distance lost themselves in swamps, and returned to Sydney with the conviction that these swamps were really the shallower parts of an inland sea. On another expedition he discovered a river he called the Castlereagh. Journeying north from its banks, he passed over good country to the range afterwards known as the Warrumbungle Mountains. This he crossed, finding on the northern side splendidly grassed level lands which he named the Liverpool Plains. Through this country flowed a fine stream he called the Peel, a name which the river retains in the upper part of its course; though for the greater part of the distance over which it flows it is called the Namoi. This river he ascended till he arrived at the precipitous mountains at its head. He was unable to cross them where he first struck them; so he turned southward till he found a practicable crossing-place. There he passed them, finding on the eastern side the head waters of a river afterwards known as the Macleay. Between him and the south there arose the lofty summit of a mountain, he named Sea View, because from its top it is possible to see the ocean in clear weather. He crossed this mountain, finding on its southern declivities the source of a river, which is named the Hastings, and this river he followed down to the estuary it forms near where it meets the sea. This outlet he named Port Macquarie. Turning south from the estuary, he found, named, and crossed the Manning River, near its mouth, and from thence proceeded along the coast to Newcastle.

Whilst Oxley was enriching the geography of the colony with these discoveries, another explorer was travelling southward from Sydney. He discovered the good country in the neighbourhood of the site of the future city of Goulburn, and from that locality continued on southward to the banks of the river since known as the Murrumbidgee. By these discoveries the territory that was really available for settlement at the assumption of office by Governor Macquarie, namely, a belt of country about eighty miles long and about thirty broad, had been enlarged to an area fully twenty times as great, and more important than

the size of the new country was the fact that a great part of it was excellently adapted for agricultural and pastoral pursuits.

CHAPTER XL

GENERAL SURVEY—AGRICULTURAL, PASTORAL, AND COAL-MINING PROGRESS

During the period that elapsed between the departure of Governor King and the arrival of Governor Macquarie agriculture appears to have retrograded rather than advanced, for from an official statement made during the year 1810 we learn that there were but 7615 acres of land under cultivation, a quantity which was actually less than that recorded as existing in the time of Governor Hunter. But if agriculture had not advanced prior to his arrival, the pastoral industry had made such great strides that Governor Macquarie was able to report, in his first year of office, that the colony possessed a total of nearly fifty thousand cattle, horses, sheep, and pigs.

Apart from his general policy of assisting the Emancipists, it was also with a view to increase the agricultural population that he made his thirty-acre grants to the ex-convicts; but whilst he thus succeeded in establishing a few families on the soil, the bulk of his land grants were, as we have seen, never occupied by those who received them. Still, agriculture, from previous decay, began, in his time, to make such progress that at his retirement from the colony, near the end of the year 1821, there were upwards of 32,000 acres under cultivation. Rapid as was the progress thus displayed, it was far outstripped by the increase of the live stock. It was, in fact, chiefly to meet the urgent requirements of the multiplying flocks and herds that expeditions in search of new grazing country were sent forth, and when, by the successful results of some of these, the fine pastoral lands beyond the Blue Mountains were discovered, there was, thenceforth, little to check the continuous increase of the live stock. Indeed, the plains of the interior were found to be better suited for pastoral purposes than the coastal lands. Sheep, particularly, throve in the new country and their increase was so satisfactory that, though they numbered under 26,000 when the

Governor arrived, there were not far short of 230,000 of them when he departed. During the same period, the number of cattle increased from about 12,500 to over 100,000; whilst the horses quadrupled their numbers and the swine increased threefold.

Thus, agricultural and pastoral pursuits may be said to have been established on a firm basis at the termination of Macquarie's long administration, and the need for any further dependence on foreign countries to avert famine was apparently ended.

It was during Macquarie's time that the Australian Agricultural Association was formed. The title of this Company was not borne out by its operations, for at first it devoted its attention wholly to grazing on portions of an immense grant of one million acres of land, much of which extended for a great way from the northern shores of Port Stephens, and the remainder of it, claimed in later years, was situated along the Peel River. Receiving a further concession of 1960 acres of coal land, at Newcastle, and the sole right to mine for that mineral for twenty-one years, the Company took over the workings which the Government had been carrying on and for a time continued the use of convict labourers in the mining, but gradually replaced them by free miners from Great Britain. It was thought that under private management there would be a great increase in the output; but none was noticeable for some years and the increase then would probably have taken place under the old system. Thus it was that whilst three years before the Company took over the mining at Newcastle the output of the mines was 600 tons, and that in the year 1829, or three years after the Company commenced operations, the quantity raised had only reached to 800 tons. However, a great change for the better took place in the following year, when the total output was 4000 tons, and thenceforth it annually increased.

CHAPTER XLI

GOVERNOR BRISBANE—THE FIRST GERMS OF FREEDOM

Major-General Sir Thomas Brisbane came out to relieve Governor Macquarie on the 1st of December, 1821, and held office till the same date, in the year 1825.

The new Governor was in many respects very different in character from his predecessor, for he was wanting in energy, had little inclination for public business and showed a general disposition to leave affairs in the hands of the permanent officials. If these characteristics were unsuitable to a period when the King's representative possessed almost despotic power, it was, perhaps, in some respects advantageous that a man of the new Governor's stamp should have arrived when circumstances were developing that would in time make it neither desirable nor possible for a Governor to exercise autocratic powers. Free immigrants commenced to arrive in considerable numbers and with them the character of the population began to change in a direction under which an arbitrary form of government would be out of place. The disposition displayed by Sir Thomas to rely on others for advice and action was favourable to the introduction of that mild attempt at limited rule which began during his Government by the establishment in the year 1824 of a small Legislative Council consisting of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, or Commander of the Forces, Chief Justice, Archdeacon, Attorney-General, and two private gentlemen. Small as this body was, it yet formed a check on the actions of the Governor, and from its establishment the powers of law-making, which had been vested wholly in one man, were given over to this Council of Seven.

Previous to the passing in Great Britain of the Constitution of 1823, which came into force in the year 1824, the executive powers of the Governors of New South Wales, which then comprised two-thirds of the continent, together with Van Diemen's Land and some of the islands in the Pacific Ocean, was not subject to the control of any constituted body within the limits of the Australian territories. The authority of the Governors was, in fact, only limited by the common law of England and by such general regulations as the British Secretary of State laid down for their guidance. Hence, when their conduct did not conflict with these, the powers of the Governors were practically unlimited.

Thus, for thirty-five years from the landing of Phillip the whole of Australia that was claimed by Great Britain was under a despotic form of government. With the appointment of the small Legislative Council came other curtailments of autocratic power in the providing for trial by jury in civil cases

and in the establishment of a Supreme Court. Previous to this time all the judicial proceedings partook of the nature of courts-martial. But whilst this was, perhaps, appropriate to a time when the population had almost wholly consisted of convicts and their guards, it was highly repugnant to the free people who had recently been arriving.

In still another and still more striking manner was the progress of freedom visible. This was in the liberty taken by the Press in discussing political questions; but this was, nevertheless, done with the Governor's full concurrence; for he had abolished that censorship of the newspapers which previous Governors had maintained.

Though taking no part for or against the Emancipists, whom Macquarie had freely patronized, the general attitude of the officials of the period was adverse to them and tended to favour the wealthy free classes. This policy was to be accentuated under the succeeding Governor.

CHAPTER XLII

EXPLORATIONS IN BRISBANE'S GOVERNORSHIP

The exploring expeditions which had proved so successful in Macquarie's time were rivalled by those undertaken under the Governorship of Sir Thomas Brisbane. The most important of these was that led by Messrs. Hume and Hovell, the former being an experienced bushman and the latter an ex-sea captain whose ability to take observations and to determine from these the latitude and longitude of localities was of essential service to the expedition. In the month of October, 1824, the expedition set out from the neighbourhood of Lake George with the intention of exploring the country southward to Bass Straits. Soon after leaving the limits of settlement, the explorers found the Murrumbidgee River in flood; but improvising a kind of boat out of one of their carts, surrounded by tarpaulins, they successfully crossed; but beyond they encountered a much more difficult problem in the mountainous country that everywhere presented itself in front of them. Instead of one range there were a number, all more or less rugged and precipitous. But with

patience, the use of tracks made by the blacks and kangaroos, and a strong determination, steady progress southward was made. From the top of one of the ridges, some twenty miles away to the southward a range far higher than any they had met, was seen. The summits of its heights were white with snow, indicating an altitude that seemed to the observers to justify the name of the Australian Alps which they gave these mountains; but while the sight of this lofty range was hailed with pleasure, it warned the explorers not to try to advance in that direction, so the route of the expedition was changed for a while to the westward. After proceeding in that direction for some distance, the country became less rugged and then turning again southward the explorers came upon a much larger river than any they had hitherto seen. This stream, from the leader of the expedition, was named the Hume, a title which in after years it lost in favour of another given to it lower down its course. It was found to be full of fish and frequented by quantities of wild ducks. The place where it was first met with was near the site of the future town of Albury, and there a tree, close to the bank of the river, long exhibited marks said to have been made by Mr. Hamilton Hume. Owing to the flooded state of the river and the country just beyond it, the explorers did not attempt to cross it, in that locality; but higher up they saw that the stream became narrower with better country for travelling from its southern bank. There, forming a boat with wickerwork and tarpaulins, they passed over and, continuing their southward progress, crossed successively the Mitta Mitta, Ovens and Goulburn rivers. Beyond the last of these they encountered a densely scrub-covered range which they could not get through; but moving further westward they discovered and availed themselves of an easier passage and soon beyond began to descend into the fine, open forest country that extends away towards the southern coast, which was at length reached near the present town of Geelong. The very favourable account that the explorers gave of the surrounding country, soon after their return to Sydney, was the means of causing that settlement of the Port Phillip lands which will be narrated elsewhere.

But discoveries were not confined to the southern portion of the colony: for ere Hume and Hovell had set out on their overland journey to Bass Straits, Surveyor-General Oxley had been despatched by the Governor to find a new and suitable locality

for another penal settlement, which was to be at a considerable distance northward from the parent one at Sydney, where as well as in the surrounding country it was purposed to keep only the less criminal of the convict population. With this object in view Oxley voyaged north along the eastern coast as far as Port Curtis without noticing a locality that appealed to him as suitable. Turning south again he entered Moreton Bay and, whilst on shore there, a white man who was living with the blacks informed him of the existence of a large river that flowed into the bay at some distance from where the explorer's vessel was anchored, and this stream he offered to point out. His offer was gladly accepted, and as his information as to the existence of the river proved to be correct, Oxley soon had the satisfaction of beholding what his exploration of it showed to be a fine navigable stream. He named it, after the Governor, the Brisbane. In his report he described much of the country through which it flowed as being well adapted for the purpose the Governor had in view. In consequence of this, in the year 1825, he was sent with a number of convicts and their guards to form a settlement. At first the locality fixed on was near the mouth of the river; but the situation proving unsuitable, the whole of the penal community was removed to an excellent site up the river which, like that stream, was named after the Governor, and this was the first beginning of the metropolitan city of Brisbane.

THE SEPARATION OF VAN DIEMEN'S LAND GOVERNOR

Though Brisbane's term was signalized by a great extension of the territory under occupation, by the opening, in the year 1825, of the Moreton Bay penal settlement, it was marked by the first reduction of the territorial area under the jurisdiction of the Governors of New South Wales; for on the 14th of June of the same year that saw the founding of the northern settlement, the island dependency of Van Diemen's Land was severed from the control of the Sydney authority and thenceforth, with a Lieutenant-Governor and a Legislative Council of its own, it began directly to govern its own affairs, though subject always to the sway of the Imperial Ministers and still liable to a nominal supervision by the Governor-in-chief of New South Wales.

CHAPTER XLIII

FREE SETTLEMENT—PRODUCTION EXTENDED

With the commencement of Governor Brisbane's administration the era of free settlement may be said to have fairly begun, for though there had been arrivals from time to time, since the days of Governor Hunter, of small numbers of free colonists, some of whom did excellent service to their adopted country by moderating the generally convict tone of the community and by the successful manner in which they applied themselves to increase the agricultural and pastoral productions; still, in the main, the work of the colony up to the end of Macquarie's Government was carried out under military officers by men who either were or had been convicts. But the time had at length arrived when those who were untainted by crime commenced in increasing numbers to arrive in the colony to take part in its industrial production. Many of these proceeded to the newly discovered lands and devoted themselves to pastoral and agricultural pursuits. The Hunter River lands which are in many places of great fertility were in great favour with those who were disposed to agriculture. On the other hand, the vast plains beyond the Dividing Range proved an attraction to those who intended to become sheep or cattle breeders.

Previous to this period, in order to encourage the production of grain, the Governors had allowed a fixed price for all wheat and maize sent to the Government store; but finding that the production of those cereals had reached to such a degree that there was no longer any necessity for the State to keep large stocks of them on hand to provide against famine, the Governor gave instructions that there should henceforth be no fixed price for such grain as might be received for the food of the soldiers, convicts, and stock under the control of the Government. These instructions were an excellent proof of the sound position which the farming labours of the community had reached, and if any further evidence of the progress of agriculture were needed it is amply afforded by the fact that at the close of Brisbane's governorship, near the end of the year 1825, the number of acres of land under cultivation had increased to 45,000. At the same

period the colony possessed more than 237,000 sheep and upwards of 134,000 cattle.

During this governorship the labours of Captain Macarthur in the improvement of the wool of the colony was recognized: for shortly after the arrival of Sir Thomas Brisbane, the intelligence was received in Sydney that the Society of Arts, in London, had decided to present Mr. Macarthur with two gold medals "For importing into Britain wool, the produce of his flocks, equal to the finest Saxony." These were the first trophies gained in Australia from peaceful contests in the world's industries.

CHAPTER XLIV

GOVERNOR DARLING—HIS CHARACTER AND THE OPPOSITION HE MET

Towards the last days of the month of December, 1825, General Sir Ralph Darling came out to succeed Sir Thomas Brisbane.

Prior to this time the western boundary of the colony had been the 135th meridian; but it was specified in the commission appointing Sir Ralph as Governor that the western boundary of the territory under his jurisdiction should be the line of the 129th meridian. By virtue of this the area under General Darling's control was extended six degrees further west than it had been in the time of the preceding Governors, and though Van Diemen's Land had ceased to be part of New South Wales before his arrival, Darling's dominion extended over a wider area than that of any of his predecessors. He entered on his government of this immense territory with a firm intention to do his best for the colony and for those who had sent him to be its ruler. Unfortunately, for himself, he commenced his duties with a strong prejudice against the Emancipists, a class that was fast rising into a powerful and wealthy section of the community. Though many of these persons had obtained a respectable position through their industry and intelligence the Governor seemed determined to look on the whole class with a common aversion. He was warned against this policy by Mr. W. C. Wentworth who, together with Dr. Wardell and Mr. William Bland, was a powerful champion of the interests of the

class the Governor despised and whose welfare was also favourably considered by Mr. Chief Justice Forbes, a great officer of the State who could prevent any law from coming into force by refusing his signature to it. So supported the Emancipists were able to carry on a long and sometimes successful opposition to the Governor, and this made his power seem less than it really was. This protracted struggle was not without benefit, for during its continuance the people were educated into a dislike for arbitrary institutions and into a desire for a liberal form of Government.

The small Legislative Council of the year 1824 had been far from satisfying the wishes of even the most moderate of the aspirants for a system of free government, and in response to their representations it was decided, in the year 1828, to increase the number of members of the Council to fifteen, of whom seven were to be private gentlemen. But whilst the new Constitution enlarged the membership it did not effect much improvement in its character, for seven of the Councillors were officers in the employ of the State and four of the unpaid members were retired officers of the military service. In fact, the chief result of the enlargement of the membership of the Council was that some of the powers of the Governor were shared by fourteen gentlemen appointed to the Legislature by himself.

The Press, which had gradually become free in his predecessor's time, entered into the struggle between Darling and the Emancipists with great boldness. The views of the Governor were championed by the "Sydney Gazette"; whilst the part of the Emancipists was taken by the "Monitor" and "Australian," which, by their fearless and bitter attacks on the Governor, contributed to make him more and more unpopular and to increase the power and influence of the Emancipists in almost the same degree. The members of this class had from the first regarded all free immigrants as intruders; but the policy of Governor Darling soon induced them to welcome the free settlers as possible allies against the Governor, and as he foolishly took no pains to encourage the voluntary immigrants, but rather treated them coldly, they were induced by degrees to join in that opposition to his rule in which the Emancipists were so bitter. Thus the Governor had soon a very large proportion of the population arrayed against him and his policy.

The manner in which numbers of those who had formerly

been convicts had grown into a wealthy and fairly respectable section of the people had a remarkable effect on some of the poorly paid soldiers; for two of these, named Sudds and Thompson, began to think that the best way they could better their condition was to qualify themselves by the commission of crime for the position of convicts. Accordingly, they committed thefts so that they might become prisoners and that subsequently, as emancipated convicts, they might have a chance of becoming rich, which, as soldiers, they could never hope to be.

Discovering the motive of these men, the Governor treated them with extreme severity. Though they had been sentenced by the law to a term of imprisonment he took them out of the hands of the civil authorities, changed their sentence from penal servitude to hard labour on the roads, and informed them that, after serving seven years in that way, they would have to return to the ranks of their regiment. Then, after stripping them of their uniform, in the presence of their fellow-soldiers, and arraying them in the dress of convicts, he had iron-spiked collars placed round their necks and heavy chains on their legs. In consequence of this harsh sentence, one of the soldiers became insane and the other died a day or two after of pain, shame, and excessive grief.

The circumstances connected with the fate of the soldiers, as well as his general policy, in no small degree tended to increase the unpopularity of the Governor, and Mr. Wentworth, representing the feeling they caused, did not hesitate to inform him that he would take steps to have him tried in England for his harshness to the soldiers. The newspapers also took part in the matter, and so bitterly that, at the instance of the Governor, the Legislative Council passed a measure to control the Press. By this statute anyone convicted of publishing statements calculated to bring the Government into contempt might be fined or imprisoned, and in case of a second conviction might be banished from the colony. There was an attempt made by the Governor to pass another law to impose a heavy duty on newspapers, but it failed to receive the necessary signature of the Chief Justice. Under the libel law in force, the Editor of the "Monitor" was repeatedly fined and imprisoned; though the punishment of banishment was not inflicted. The publisher of the "Australian" was also convicted under this law and fined £100 for publishing a statement that the Governor had sub-

stituted his will for the law in the case of the soldier convicts. The excitement caused by the Governor's high-handed action in that matter, his newspaper law and prosecutions, and his military sternness to all who were not of the class of "Exclusives," so called because they excluded all but rich, free settlers from their ranks, caused demands for a free Parliament and for trial by jury in all cases.

CHAPTER XLV

BUSHRANGING, SOCIAL MATTERS, AND THE GREAT DROUGHT

Bushranging, or the robbing expeditions of bands of escaped convicts, which had at various times from the earliest days of the colony been occurring, became so very prevalent in Governor Darling's time that a special Act of Parliament, known as the Bushranging Act, was passed to deal with the matter. Under this law suspected persons might be arrested without any warrant and detained in custody till they could prove they were law-abiding citizens. There were several other stringent provisions in the law, such as that the police in search of criminals might break into any place without a special search warrant; that anyone carrying arms might be arrested, that anyone suspected of carrying arms might be searched, and that anyone found with weapons in his possession, without being able to give a satisfactory reason for having them, might be sentenced to three years' imprisonment. This law was not long in striking terror into the hearts of the bushrangers and their sympathizers and, under its operation, the country became more free from crime than it had been at any previous time. Ere that improvement began, the bush-robbers had grown so numerous and daring, that, near Bathurst, a party of about fifty of them were able to successfully and openly oppose the police and they were not subdued and captured till a company of soldiers had been marched from Sydney to attack them.

The need of a regular supply of water for the rising town of Sydney had begun to be severely felt. This want was met, in the year 1827, by laying pipes to the Botany swamps, whence a

supply of good water was obtained, which continued to be sufficient in quantity to meet the requirements of the population, even when Sydney had become a great city; though eventually another and more extensive system of supply replaced it.

In the year 1830, two high-class educational institutions were established to meet the requirements of the population, which, previous to that time, had been sadly wanting in schools capable of supplying any but the simplest education. These two institutions were the Sydney College and the Australian College, both of which in a short time began to exercise an important effect for good on the minds of the rising generation. The Australian College was started wholly by the efforts of the Rev. John Dunmore Lang, a Presbyterian clergyman, who had arrived in the colony in the year 1823, and who had from the time of his landing commenced to eagerly concern himself in the fortunes of his adopted country. He made several visits to Great Britain, in the interests of the people of his new home, and by his efforts whilst in the mother country, as well as by his lâbours in New South Wales, he did much to cause Australia to be looked upon as an inviting land for free immigrants. Dr. Lang was particularly responsible for the introduction of a number of Scotch mechanics who proved themselves a most valuable addition to the population of a land in which the artisan class was then almost wholly represented by those who had been sent out as convicts.

Perhaps one of the most interesting events of the period was the arrival in Port Jackson during the last year of Darling's governorship of the first steamboat that had appeared in Australian waters. This was the *Sophia Jane*, a vessel of only 150 tons. The first Australian Steam Navigation Company was founded in the same year. It was known as the Australian Steam Conveyance Company.

Generally speaking, the time of Governor Darling was one of social and material progress. In the latter respect the advance would have been much more marked had it not been for one of those visitations which from time to time desolate parts of Australia. This was the great drought that began at the end of the year 1826 and lasted for nearly three years, a period when ruin and death stalked through the land and the price of grain rose to thirty shillings a bushel; whilst vegetables were almost unprocurable.

CHAPTER XLVI

EXPLORATION UNDER GOVERNOR DARLING—CUNNINGHAM AND STURT

Mr. Allan Cunningham, a distinguished botanist, was one of the most successful explorers of Darling's governorship. In the year 1827, he was instructed to endeavour to find an overland route to Moreton Bay and to ascertain the source of the Brisbane River. He started on his mission by crossing the Liverpool Range from the Hunter Valley and turning northward from the foot of the western slopes of the range, he, after crossing four rivers, of which he named two—the Gwydir and Dumaresq, arrived in the southern part of the present State of Queensland, where he discovered the fine, agricultural and pastoral plains which, in honour of the Governor, he named the Darling Downs. From these plains he proceeded eastward and had the good fortune to find a practicable pass through the Great Dividing Range, which, from its discoverer, is known as Cunningham's Gap.

By this expedition an immense tract of valuable territory was made known and available for colonization.

The belief that the rivers flowing westward from the Dividing Range emptied their waters into a great inland lake which had been originated by Mr. Oxley, was still prevalent. Captain Sturt, one of those who most strongly held this opinion, was desirous of reaching the shores of the "Great Sea," believing that he would there find the seat of inhabitants of a much higher character than the miserable tribes of coastal blacks. Accordingly, in the year 1828, with the sanction and encouragement of the Governor, he set out to solve the question. He was accompanied by Mr. Hamilton Hume, who had already made himself known to fame by his discoveries in the south. The route adopted by the expedition was the course of the Macquarie River. Down this stream the explorers proceeded in a boat till their navigation was stopped by the great reedy marsh into which the river spreads out; but it was found that the swamp was of no great extent, and going round it they observed a chain of ponds extending northward, indicating that in flood periods the river had a course beyond the marsh. Proceeding on horseback along this apparent course, they reached the channel of a larger river, which Sturt named the Darling. Being very

thirsty, the explorers rushed to the water, only to find that it was salt. This was owing to the prevailing drought and the presence of a number of brine springs in the locality; but in ordinary times the Darling's water is quite fresh and good, though generally discoloured. However, the existence of the saltness, led Sturt to the belief that at last he was nearing the expected inland sea, and in the hope of meeting it he followed the course of the Darling for about ninety miles, passing the junction of the Bogan River, which he considered was a reappearance of the Macquarie; but nowhere could he find any signs of the mythical inland sea, and as his party was beginning to suffer greatly from the want of fresh water, he decided to return to civilization.

In the following year he determined to continue his western explorations, and this time he followed the downward course of the Murrumbidgee River. As the stream was very low, for the first part of his journey he travelled along its northern bank, having with him, on bullock drays, a couple of boats. When the expedition came to where there was sufficient water to bear the boats, he transferred his party into them, sending the drays back to Goulburn, which was the base whence the expedition had started. Hardly had the navigation of the river begun than the junction of the Lachlan was seen, and at no great distance from this point, instead of meeting as he had expected the course of the Darling, he came to a fine, broad stream, flowing in a westerly direction. This river, which he deemed himself to be the discoverer of, he named the Murray, after Sir George Murray, the Secretary of State; but in so acting he unconsciously deprived its real discoverer, Mr. Hume, of the honour that justly belonged to him; for the Murray is identical with the river that had been named the Hume. Sturt determined to follow the course of this river to its mouth. During its progress down the stream, his expedition was several times threatened by the blacks; but undeterred by the danger of an attack from them, the explorer proceeded onward, passing the junction of a large river that flowed in from the north and which he correctly judged was the Darling. At length, the party arrived at the expanse of water known as Lake Alexandrina, into which the Murray empties; though afterwards, by an overflow from the lake, the waters of the river finally reach the sea at Encounter Bay.

The result of the discovery of the mouth of the Murray effectu-

ally disposed of his idea that the western rivers flowed into an inland sea. Satisfied of this and finding that his people were unable through the effect of privations to travel by land to St. Vincent's Gulf, where a vessel was waiting for the party, though Hovell had rightly judged that Encounter Bay was the proper place for her to wait, Sturt resolved to return by the way he had come. He found, however, that pulling up the stream of a river was a very different thing to going downward with the current, and so after the constant labour of forcing their boats for a thousand miles against the stream, the whole of his companions were worn out through their exertions; whilst Sturt, himself, had become almost blind, a misfortune from which he did not recover till long after his return to Sydney.

Whilst these outlying explorations were proceeding the opening of the country nearer to Port Jackson was proceeding. That of the Illawarra District, in particular, began in the year 1826 with a military station at Wollongong.

Good work was also done considerably to the northward of Sydney; for between Port Stephens and Point Danger, timber getters discovered the Bellinger and Nambucca rivers, and two much more important streams, both of which were found to be navigable, were found by Captain Rous, during the year 1826. These were the Richmond and Clarence, the latter of which is one of the finest of the rivers of Eastern Australia.

CHAPTER XLVII

OUTLYING POSTS—THE SWAN RIVER COLONY

A BELIEF that the French contemplated some scheme of colonization in Australia was one of the reasons which had caused Governor King to form settlements in Van Diemen's Land to forestall them, and now, nearly thirty years afterwards, Governor Darling, by a similar fear, was moved to send out expeditions to occupy Western Port at the eastern end of the south coast and at King George's Sound, near its western extremity. In establishing a settlement at the latter place, the Governor went far beyond the limits of the territory over which he had authority, for this, as we have seen, only extended westward to the 129th meridian; but he was acting with the approval of

the authorities in England, who had themselves in the last year of Brisbane's administration opened a small military post on Melville Island off the north coast of Australia. All three of these were soon abandoned.

Better results seemed likely to result in the case of another settlement of a different character established on the banks of the Swan River, in the far west of Australia. This colony was founded, with Captain Stirling as Governor, in the year 1829. It was established on the principle that the public lands should be given away to settlers in proportion to the money or the value in goods they possessed on arrival and was to consist wholly of free persons. This was the scheme of a Mr. Thomas Peel; but the results of the land policy were disastrous in the extreme, and this, aided by the isolation of the settlement from every market where all but the small quantity of products required for local consumption could be disposed of, quickly brought the infant settlement to the verge of ruin, and after barely existing for a number of years, during the earlier portion of which many of those who came to settle had left, it seemed to the residents that the only hope for the survival of the colony was to make it a convict settlement and, accordingly, they petitioned the British Government to make the territory a penal settlement to the end not only that Government money should be expended, but also that cheap convict labour might be obtainable. The prayer of the petitioners, seeing that it coincided with the desire of Great Britain to get rid of her felons, was favourably received and the colony that possessed all the west of Australia began in 1848 to receive prisoners from the mother country and continued to do so long after the people of eastern Australia had emphatically and successfully protested against the transportation to their shores of convicts from Britain.

CHAPTER XLVIII

THE STOCK MANIA AND ITS RESULT—THE REVIVAL OF PROSPERITY, AND DEPARTURE OF GOVERNOR DARLING

Shortly after General Darling came to succeed Governor Brisbane, the Australian Agricultural Company commenced buying stock very largely. The example set by the Company seemed

to infect numbers of persons who had never previously had an idea of becoming stock-owners. Lawyers, doctors, clergymen, soldiers, tradesmen, and people of all sorts and conditions were almost simultaneously seized with the conviction that to own cattle or sheep was to be in the way of making a rapid fortune. Hence, what was afterwards known as the "sheep and cattle mania" set in. Everyone seemed impatient to buy as much stock as he could pay for with his own, or even with borrowed money. The natural result was that far more was asked and paid at the stock sales than the animals were really worth. The full consequence of this policy was not felt by the purchasers as long as good seasons supplied plenty of grass and water for their flocks; but when, in the third year of Darling's governorship, Australia was visited by the severe drought, it caused almost all the grazing lands to be unable to support the stock on them. Hence the graziers had to try to sell a greater or less portion of their flocks, or allow the whole of them to perish of starvation. When every pastoralist was in this manner compelled to dispose of a part of his stock and when no one cared to buy, the natural result was that the price of sheep and cattle fell greatly. It fell so low that those who had bought stock at the prices which prevailed during the height of the sheep and cattle mania, suffered very heavy losses and some of them were reduced to great distress. Agriculturists, also, suffered severely; for in most places the parched lands would yield no harvests. Fortunately, the drought was not quite continuous, near some of the settlements, notably those in the Lower Hunter, Port Macquarie, and Moreton Bay districts, and, consequently, some of the farmers in those localities were able to produce sufficient food to prevent the evils of a general famine, till at length the downfall of copious rains, during the year 1830, broke up the drought and put an end to the distress. Thenceforth the colony started on another career of prosperity.

Governor Darling left for England on the 22nd of October, 1831, amidst the exulting rejoicings of considerable numbers of the people, who even went, on the day of his departure, to the extent of lighting bonfires to display their gladness. He may be fairly described as the most unpopular Governor that had been known in Australia; for though he was not, like Bligh, deposed from his office, he had, unlike that Governor, made enemies amongst rich and poor alike.

CHAPTER XLIX

GOVERNOR BOURKE—A POLITIC RULER

Between the departure of Governor Darling and the arrival on the 2nd December, 1831, of his successor, Major-General Sir Richard Bourke, K.C.B., a period of six weeks elapsed. During this interval, the government was administered by Colonel Lindesay as Acting-Governor.

Sir Richard Bourke's case was something like that of Colonel Lachlan Macquarie, seeing that he followed a ruler who had created a bitterly partisan feeling amongst the community. This circumstance ensured the new Governor a welcome reception, for it was thought that he could not help proving an improvement on his predecessor, and a period of rest from the recent exasperation, and excitement was fully anticipated.

Sir Richard Bourke proved to be a much more popular administrator than his predecessor. He showed from the outset that he was fully determined not to take up a partisan position. He knew that Governor Brisbane had caused a very unpleasant feeling in England and amongst the old families of free settlers, in the colony, by pandering to the Emancipists; that Governor Darling had gone to the other extreme in treating the latter with undisguised contempt and by confining his social intercourse wholly to a small wealthy class known as the Exclusives. Bourke resolved to refuse to recognize any class as such; but rather to deal with all persons according to their merits as individuals.

TRIAL BY JURY

Within two years of his arrival the Governor was responsible for a most important reform; for mainly owing to his influence with the members of the Legislative Council, that body in the year 1833 enacted a law under which every person charged with a criminal offence became entitled to be tried by a jury of his countrymen. Previous to that time, it was left to the discretion of the Courts whether a jury should be granted or not, and even in those cases where juries were appointed, in all criminal cases they consisted of naval or military officers. Military juries

continued to exist after the passing of the Act of 1833 ; but they were not appointed in any case where they were objected to and they were finally abolished in the time of Governor Bourke's successor.

But the people were not satisfied with obtaining the surety that trial by jury gave them of protection against injustice. They desired also to have a voice in the making of the laws. As far back as the year 1825, a petition was presented to Sir Thomas Brisbane on the eve of his retirement from the governorship in favour of the establishment of an elective Assembly. This request was repeated to Governor Darling and to Governor Bourke. On each occasion the petition presented was the outcome of a public meeting. At one great gathering, held in the year 1833, Mr. Wentworth described the existing form of government as an intolerable one and his views were warmly supported by the assemblage.

Apart from the fact that he followed an unpopular Governor, and was thus gladly received as a probable great improvement on his predecessor, circumstances favoured Bourke in other ways. He came just as the colony was recovering from the effects of the great drought that had afflicted it in his predecessor's time, and he was relieved of a responsibility that had in the case of previous rulers often caused envy and heart-burnings. Each of them had had the power to grant land to individuals in almost any locality and quantity ; but this system from the date of his assumption of office gave place to the rule that the public lands when being alienated should be sold by auction.

With these favourable circumstances, he early showed a desire to encourage the people to take an interest in the public affairs of the State by sending a copy of the proceedings of his Legislative Council to the newspapers and thus, as it were, inviting reasonable criticism of the work of the Government. This policy was also a recognition of the value of journalistic publicity that could not fail, at such a period, to favourably dispose the newspapers towards him and his administration. In another way he showed that he was an enlightened man ; for he ventured to tell his chief, the Secretary of State, that the colony would never succeed as it should till the transportation of convicts to its shores was abandoned in favour of a system of free immigration. Though his views in that matter were in advance of the times, they were not put forth in vain ; for, about that date, the idea

began to find support in New South Wales, that the convict system was injurious to the colony and, a few years later, this opinion was to find powerful supporters in England.

CHAPTER L

HIS POLICY TOWARD CONVICTS AND IMMIGRATION

In order to see the condition of the people over whom he was ruling the Governor made a journey through every settled part of the colony. Among other good results that flowed from this visit was a law forbidding the magistrates to order more than fifty lashes to a convict for any offence. Up to that time, there had been no restriction, and hence it was no uncommon thing for a magistrate to order so many lashes that the unfortunate wretch who received them was literally scourged to death. For his comparatively humane reform of this state of affairs, the Governor was much blamed by some of the great land-owners of the colony, who made their feelings known by petitions to England and through the columns of the newspapers, but without much effect. The Governor remedied another abuse which had grown up in the system of assigning convict labourers to employers. Hitherto, persons of influence could choose the best and an unfair number of these workmen; but this favouritism was stopped by a regulation which gave every person who wanted convict labourers an equal chance to get them and made the number of hands that could be obtained proportionate to the amount of land the person applying for them had under cultivation and to his ability to satisfactorily maintain his labourers.

CHAPTER LI

THE IMMIGRATION FUND—FAIR ADJUSTMENT OF STATE AID

It was little use to assure the authorities in Great Britain that free immigrants were required if funds for providing for the transport to the colony of the needed labourers and settlers of

small means were not available. Therefore, largely through the Governor's influence, a law was made whereby it was provided that a large portion of the money obtained from sales of the lands of the colony was to be devoted to bringing out free persons as colonists. This proved an exceedingly useful measure, and would have been more so if it had been strictly adhered to; for as the amounts received from the land sales were continually increasing there was soon a large fund available for immigration purposes. Hence, the colony was enabled to largely add to its free inhabitants and, especially, to the female portion of them. This last was a much-desired gain, for, through the effects of the system of transportation, many more men than women had come to the colony. The number of free immigrants was also remarkably affected by a famine in the Highlands of Scotland from which numbers of poor people were seeking to escape to America. Fortunately, Dr. Lang happened to be in London, when a public meeting in aid of the sufferers was being held, and on informing the leading people concerned in the gathering that New South Wales had a large fund available for immigration purposes, they waited upon the Secretary of State to inform him of the existence of this fund and persuaded him to cause a portion of it to be devoted to sending some of the distressed Highlanders to New South Wales. The result was that upwards of four thousand most valuable free colonists were added to the population of the colony.

Up to this period the Church of England had been very specially favoured in the matter of grants for religious purposes; but Sir Richard Bourke caused an Act to be passed whereby the grants to religious bodies should be in proportion to the amounts contributed by their members. This was a fair measure and gave general satisfaction amongst the various denominations.

CHAPTER LII

EXPLORATIONS IN THE WEST OF NEW SOUTH WALES—THE DEATH OF CUNNINGHAM

In the year 1855, Sir Thomas Mitchell, who had four years before mapped out the country extending in a north and north-west

direction from the Liverpool Plains, was ambitious to prove that the Darling did not, as Sturt considered, flow into the Murray. With this object in view, he followed the course of the Bogan River to the Darling. Near the junction of the two streams Mitchell formed a slightly protected depôt, which became known from this as Fort Bourke, and at some distance from which a town, also bearing the Governor's name, was to grow up. From his depôt there, Mitchell who had as his associate Mr. Cunningham, started down along the bank of the Darling, since there was too little water in the stream for boat navigation, though the experience of later years shows that this is only the case after long-continued periods of dry weather. Whilst the river was found to be so low, its water was proved not to be salt, as it was when Sturt tasted it and the country on its banks was well grassed. The explorer continued down the stream for three hundred miles; but was then forced to return by the hostility of the blacks, with whom his men had had several encounters.

By this exploration it was shown that all the country traversed was suitable for pastoral purposes; but whilst its success in that direction was pronounced, the expedition returned with the news that Mr. Cunningham, the botanist of the expedition, who was a brother of Mr. Allan Cunningham, the discoverer of the Darling Downs, had perished. The summer had been so excessively dry that water was only to be found at rare intervals in the bed of the Bogan. Under these circumstances, the search for water was one of the great duties of the party. One day Mr. Cunningham was missed and, as he did not return to the camp towards evening, an active search for him was instituted. His tracks were soon discovered and followed for seventy miles, when the carcase of his horse was met with. Some miles further on, his whip was picked up; but his body was never found. It was afterwards believed that he lost his way whilst out searching for water and that he fell in with the blacks when delirious from thirst. It is thought that he was kindly received by them at first, but that afterwards he became so dangerous or troublesome in his delirium that he angered them and was killed.

CHAPTER LIII

MITCHELL'S EXPLORATIONS IN THE SOUTH

In the succeeding year, Major Mitchell proceeded to explore the country on the southern side of the Murray. He ascended the Loddon, one of its tributaries, and after seeing the Avon, Avoca, Wimmera, and Glenelg rivers he emerged on the seashore at the mouth of the last-named stream. He then turned eastward along the coast to Portland Bay, where he was astonished to see the home, farm, and whaling station of the Henty Brothers, who had about two years before gone there to settle from Van Diemen's Land, and who were, in 1834, when they started on Portland Bay, the only white settlers in all the vast area between Bass Straits and the Murrumbidgee River. If Mitchell was surprised at the sight of the settlement of the Hentys, they were not only equally so, but also alarmed when they saw the explorer's company, which comprised twenty-five men, marching almost like a body of soldiers. Thinking that these formidable-looking intruders might have hostile or predatory objects, the Hentys made ready to receive them in a manner befitting their supposed character. A four-pounder gun was trained on the advancing party; but fortunately a parley followed, with the result that the lonely settlers of Portland Bay were delighted to welcome the expedition, which, after some rest and refreshment, set out in a north-easterly direction. On this route Mitchell saw and named the Australian Pyrenees, Mount Alexander, and Mount Macedon. From the summit of the last-named height, the tiny smoke of the new-born settlement on the Yarra, forty miles away, and the blue waves of Port Phillip beyond might possibly have been distinguished.

Turning nearly northward from Mount Macedon, Mitchell crossed the Murray below Albury and thence proceeded homeward to Sydney. He named the whole of the territory he had passed through, southward of the Murray, Australia Felix, on account of the great extent of fertile and well-watered country he had noted, and though the lands round Port Phillip were already being occupied by settlers from Van Diemen's Land, Mitchell's account of what he had seen largely influenced a flow of settlers to his Australia Felix from the Sydney side and some of these were men with considerable capital.

CHAPTER LIV

THE FIRST PIONEER OF PORT PHILLIP

Prior to the year 1834, when, as we have seen, the Henty Brothers from Van Diemen's Land went to the shores of Portland Bay and there became whalers and farmers, there was, with the exception of temporary settlers on the coast, not a white family southward of the Murrumbidgee, and their example was not followed, even if it was known, which, for some time, it probably was not. The publication, however, of the account of the visit of the explorers, Hovell and Hume, to the country adjacent to Port Phillip was the immediate cause of the long-delayed settlement on the fine lands in that locality.

In the year 1835, a native of Parramatta, near Sydney, named John Batman, who had settled in Van Diemen's Land and who was on the look-out for more land to pasture his increasing stock, influenced by reading the report of the explorers, decided to try to form an Association which would take up some of the good land that the report described as existing on the northern shores of Bass Straits. The Association was successfully formed and, having fitted out a vessel, Batman, with a party of representatives of the Company, set sail for the country that Hovell and Hume had so favourably depicted. The result of the voyage of these pilgrims of fortune was the discovery by Batman of splendid land around the northern and western shores of Port Phillip. The settlement of this country was undertaken by him and his Association as well as by another Company set on foot nearly at the same time by Mr. John Pascoe Fawkner, also of Van Diemen's Land, who forestalled Batman's purpose of holding all the fine land on and around where the future city of Melbourne was to be. Though Batman built himself a house on a portion of this land, his Association chiefly confined its energies to the country on the west side of Port Phillip. The members of Pascoe's Company restricted their attention wholly to the land they had, despite Batman's protests, occupied on the future Melbourne site. Other settlers from Van Diemen's Land quickly followed the example of the pioneer associations, and a little later on, moved by the glowing account given by Mitchell of the country to the north and north-west of Port Phillip, numbers

of settlers from the territory of which Sydney was the centre proceeded to take up land in the Port Phillip District. Thus, in a comparatively short space of time the greater part of the country between Bass Straits and the Murray was either occupied or claimed by squatters from Van Diemen's Land and the settled portions of New South Wales. But this, in the first few years, was done without any authority from the Sydney Government, and, on that account, the squatters were liable to be dispossessed as trespassers, a course which only their number, and the risk attending on the enforcement of drastic measures, prevented from being generally adopted.

CHAPTER LV

GOVERNOR BOURKE ISSUES PROCLAMATIONS AND FOUNDS MELBOURNE

Governor Bourke's opinion of the actions of the Hentys, Batmans, Fawkners and other settlers, and it was also that of his London chiefs, was demonstrated by a proclamation he issued on the 26th of August, 1835, wherein he declined to recognize any bargains for land made with the blacks or any occupancy of country in the district that was not the result of conveyance from the Crown. His announcement caused consternation amongst all who held land in the Port Phillip District; but the only result of their appeals for consideration was the issue of a second proclamation permitting occupants to obtain by purchase, or the payment of rent, acceptable titles to their land; but refusing to recognize them as having any priority of claim to possession by virtue of their occupancy, which was declared to be unauthorized and, therefore, void. The Governor further announced that he intended to send an officer to represent him in the settlement, and this he carried out by the appointment of Captain Lonsdale, in the year 1836.

In the following year, the Governor visited the district and found that there were then some five hundred persons settled on the banks of the Yarra River, a navigable stream flowing into the head of Port Phillip, and that the village that had grown up was already giving every promise of becoming a place of

importance. He, therefore, caused plans to be drawn for the proper laying out of a town and called it after the then Prime Minister of Great Britain, Melbourne. His own name is perpetuated in one of the finest of the streets of the town, or the great city as it grew to be, and, also, in that of the county in which Melbourne is situated.

The Governor also approved of plans for a town to be built at the mouth of the Yarra and this he named after the reigning sovereign, Williamstown, believing it would prove the principal centre and port of the district surrounding Port Phillip.

CHAPTER LVI

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA

Following quickly on the colonization of the country adjacent to Port Phillip another important territory, fronting the Southern Ocean, was opened up for settlement. This was the large section of the continent that was to be known as South Australia.

From the first inception of its history as the abode of a white population, the new colony was wholly freed from the control of New South Wales, and this separation formed the second lessening of the vast domain that had been subject in its entirety to the dominion of the Governors from Phillip to Macquarie.

The portion of Australia comprising the new province was the great area between the 132nd and 141st meridians of east longitude and extending from the 26th parallel of south latitude to the Southern Ocean.

The coast-line of the province was discovered in the early part of the year 1802, by Matthew Flinders; but it was not till after Sturt's return from his exploration of the Murray River, from the junction of the Murrumbidgee to Lake Alexandrina, and the publication of his opinion that good country would be found between the lower Murray and Spencer's Gulf, that attention was given to this part of Australia.

The information conveyed by Sturt's remarks on this subject was eagerly noted in England by Mr. Edward Gibbon Wakefield, who was anxious to put into practice certain theories he held in

respect to colonization. He submitted a scheme for the establishment of a colony in the country westward from the Lower Murray, the chief feature of which was that land should not be sold by the Government, except at what he termed a sufficient price, and that none should be given away free, as it had often been in other colonies. He advocated, also, that no convicts should be sent to the new settlements.

Wakefield's proposals received support from influential persons in Great Britain, and through their aid a Bill was, in the month of August, 1834, passed constituting the province generally, on the lines of the Wakefield proposals.

Two years later the new colony was formally proclaimed at Holdfast Bay, by Governor Hindmarsh, who had arrived with the second lot of settlers. But ere he had landed the settlers who had come by the first ship had chosen a site for the capital of their colony and had called it Adelaide, after the name of the Queen. Hindmarsh strongly objected to the site chosen, but was unable to alter it to one on the coast, and the dispute and feeling that arose over it paved the way for his early recall by his chiefs in England.

CHAPTER LVII

EXPLORATION IN THE NORTH AND NORTH-WEST OF AUSTRALIA AND ON THE NEW SOUTH WALES COAST

Whilst so much was being achieved in the opening up of the southern portion of Australia something, also, was being done towards making the northern and western coasts known and so available for occupation, at least, for pastoral purposes; for the territory there was considered to be little suited for other pursuits. In this enterprise, Captain Grey, better known later as Sir George Grey, the New Zealand ruler and statesman, was the leader.

In the year 1837, when in command of the *Beagle*, he explored and mapped out a great extent of the north-western coast. At an inlet he named George the Fourth Harbour, he landed with the intention of making a journey inland, and, when on the banks of a stream he called the Glenelg, discovered some drawings on the rocks which pictured persons in long robes, a work which no

aboriginal native would dream of. There were also some carved letters which showed conclusively that the locality had been visited and, perhaps, inhabited by men of Asiatic origin. In the course of this journey, Captain Grey was severely wounded in an attack by the natives.

In the year 1839, he undertook another exploring expedition. This time he was carried by a whaling vessel to Shark's Bay. He left there to begin his work in two open boats. Whenever they landed his people were robbed of their stores by the blacks, till at length there was scarcely any food left. To complete their misfortunes the two boats were wrecked in the surf.

These calamities put an end to the hopes of the expedition and left Captain Grey no prospect but the slight one of reaching the distant Swan River settlements by a journey on foot along the coast, which is extremely barren in that quarter. The sufferings of his party on this weary journey from thirst and hunger were terrible; but, eventually, in a deplorably exhausted state the settlement was reached.

Captain Wickham, who succeeded Grey as commander of the *Beagle*, was more fortunate in his explorations though not so adventurous. In surveying the northern coast, he discovered several navigable streams, which he respectively named the Victoria, Flinders, and Albert; the last-mentioned had been previously discovered by Tasman. Some fine land was also met with which Mr. Stokes, the lieutenant of the *Beagle*, designated the Plains of Promise.

CHAPTER LVIII

SQUATTING—INLAND AND COASTAL COMMUNICATION—COINAGE

The repeatedly expressed desire of the authorities in England that the population of the colony should be concentrated round the centres in which the powers of the Government freely operated did not prevent the dispersion over the interior of persons who wished to hold large areas of land as runs for sheep and cattle. These men would go out from the limits of the lands, authorized by law or regulation as available for settlement and without permission, take up as much country as they required for the

pasturage of their flocks. Because they were thus illegally occupying public lands, they became known as "squatters," a name that implied trespassers; though in time it came to be considered a term to be desired. Seeing that it was no use denouncing the squatters, and as harsh methods against them were not to be considered, Governor Bourke obtained authority from Great Britain to grant them licences to retain their holdings. These licences were obtainable for an annual rent, and seeing that the amount charged was small compared with the value of the leases, the squatters readily agreed to seek them; though they conferred nothing more than a right to occupancy and use from year to year. This policy inaugurated by Bourke was sanctioned by law in the time of his successor. But, within what was known as the "Boundaries of the Colony for Purposes of Settlement," the principle was established that the land should be sold by public auction, rather than leased as it was in the western districts, and the minimum price was fixed at five shillings per acre, a rate that later on was successively increased to twelve and twenty shillings an acre.

SHIPPING AND LAND COMMUNICATIONS

The coastal trade had grown to such an extent before the end of the Bourke period that two steamboats were regularly employed in the traffic between the Hunter River and Sydney; whilst no less than thirty-five sailing vessels were required to carry on the trade between the various ports from Moreton Bay to Hobart and there were as many more engaged in the whaling industry.

Stage coaches ran regularly out of Sydney with mails and passengers to Bathurst and Goulburn, performing the journey to and from those places in two days. The postage on letters was fixed at what would be considered to-day the excessive rate of 4s. per ounce; for the intention was to make the mails remunerative to the revenue even if thereby they were kept to small dimensions.

COINAGE

In the early days of the colony there was such a shortage of coin that much of the trade of the population was carried on with rum and flour as the mediums of exchange. At that time, nevertheless, Dutch, Spanish, American, and Indian coins were

freely current; but the most generally used money was the Mexican dollar, valued at 5s. From numbers of these coins a circular piece, known as a dump, was punched out of the centre and marked as of the value of fifteen pence; whilst the punched coins themselves, called then "Holey" dollars, were still accounted to be worth 5s. each.

With all the various coins that were current there was still such a shortage of metal moneys that some traders issued promissory notes, known as "currency," for sums from one pound down to three pence. This practice was abolished by Governor Macquarie, though numbers of the notes continued in circulation in parts of the colony up to the year 1829, when Governor Darling finally stopped them by insisting that all reckonings, thenceforth, must be made in terms of English coinage.

CHAPTER LIX

GOVERNOR BOURKE AFTER SUCCESSFUL ADMINISTRATION RESIGNS

In the closing period of his term of office, Governor Bourke had every reason to feel satisfied that his governorship had been one marked by all-round progress of the settlements.

The nature and capabilities of the land over which he ruled had become known to an extent far beyond what they had been under his predecessor, and successful settlement of an extensive and permanent character assured that the colony was firmly established on a self-supporting basis. Its population, commerce, wages, comforts, education, and morality had all advanced in a notable degree, and this in no small measure was through the effect of his judgment and policy. Nevertheless, the opposition he had met during the greater portion of his term from the wealthy Exclusives, owing to his attempts to ameliorate the condition of the lower ranks of the population; his policy in respect to the Emancipists and those who were still convicts; his recommendation to the Secretary of State that Transportation of British prisoners to the colony should be gradually abolished; together with the fact that the Imperial Minister had reinstated as a member of the Executive Council of the colony a Mr. Riddell,

whom the Governor had dismissed, caused him so much dissatisfaction with his office that he decided to resign, and this resolution he carried into effect in the closing month of the year 1837.

When the Governor's determination in this matter became publicly known his faults and errors of administration were forgotten and the people remembered only his great services, humane disposition and liberal sentiments. They determined to mark their recognition of these in a permanent manner and the result was the erection of the bronze statue of him which stands at the western entrance of the Sydney Domain, one of the finest sites in Australia, and there it stands as a lasting memorial that the people are not unmindful of services that have appealed to them.

CHAPTER LX

THE BEGINNING OF SELF-GOVERNMENT—GOVERNOR GIPPS

To Sir Richard Bourke succeeded on the 24th of February, 1838, Sir George Gipps, who was by profession a captain in the Royal Engineers. He was distinguished by abilities of a high order and by no mean powers as a public speaker. He was nevertheless wanting in the useful quality of tact, and instead of trying to conciliate or win over to his opinions those who differed from them, he endeavoured to carry his ideas with a high hand. In this manner instead of making friends in the colony, he began to make enemies, and as it happened that the Imperial Government had instructed him to carry out some measures which were very unpopular with numbers of the squatters, he commenced to be looked on with special aversion by that class.

In one important respect Sir George Gipps had a more difficult task than any of his predecessors. Sir Richard Bourke had felt the effects of the rising tide of political freedom ; but it was not till after Gipps had taken over the reins of government that it became a deep and potent current that might be diverted into a safe channel but could not be successfully opposed. The Governor did not realize this. He had followed men who had ruled and governed, largely according to what their wills had suggested ; but the time had at last arrived when the wills of others than

the Governor were to have a potent effect in the direction of the affairs of the community. Because he did not recognize this, Gipps soon came into collision with the leaders of the movement in favour of constitutional government, and the long and losing struggle he had with them rendered his career in New South Wales anything but a smooth one. It was, moreover, his part to represent the ideas of the Government in England, and for some time after his arrival, British authority was not prepared to recognize the fact that the kind of Constitution that had suited a series of settlements mainly peopled by convicts and their guards was not at all adapted for a colony in which a growing majority of the residents were free persons, as fond of governing themselves as were the people of Great Britain. Hence, a struggle began between the Governor, as the exponent of the ideas of the British Colonial Office, and the representatives of the progressive thought of the colony.

Left to himself, Sir George would have fallen in with a number of the views of political control that were current in the colony; but he was not there to consider colonial thought, but rather that of those who were his chiefs. So influenced, he fell out with the popular leaders over quite a number of matters such as the price that Government land should be sold at, the terms on which it should be leased, the convict system, and the maintenance of transported prisoners who had committed offences in the colony. All these matters it was contended by the popular leaders should be controlled by a Parliament in the colony, and this opinion being warmly urged on their behalf, in England, might have prevailed; but it was, on the other hand, contended successfully there, that self-government could not be granted to a land which was a receptacle for convicts. The report of this, when it reached the colony, did much to strengthen the agitation that had been growing for the abolition of the convict system. This agitation had been carried to Great Britain before Gipps arrived and its exponents there had succeeded in getting an inquiry made by a Committee of Parliament into the question of the Transportation of Convicts. The report of the Committee was against the system; but nothing further was done till after it was definitely established that the colony was united—even at the cost of the failure of the supply of convict labour—in preferring a local Parliament to the continuance of Transportations. When this was learned, an Order-in-Council, made in

the year 1840, ordained that the convict system should no longer apply to the easterly part of the mainland of Australia and, thenceforth, Tasmania and Norfolk Island were to be the sole receptacles, on that side of the continent, for the surplus convicts of Britain.

CHAPTER LXI

THE LAND TROUBLES

Of all the matters that tended to make the position of Sir George Gipps one of difficulty none caused him more trouble than the Land Question. His chiefs in England were in favour of the Wakefield theory, that the price of land should be kept so high that agricultural and other labourers might not be able to readily purchase it and so cease to work for employers. Moreover, they were being urged by the friends of South Australia to make the price of land in the eastern colonies at least equal to that ruling in that colony ; for they urged that if that were not done, there seemed to be a great probability that all the land seekers in the Wakefield colony would forsake it to seek the cheaper lands of the eastern provinces. Accordingly, the British Minister in charge of the colonies instructed Gipps to raise the sale price to twelve, and then to twenty shillings per acre and this was to rule irrespective of the position or quality of the land. By this policy valuable building sites, near the large towns, such as Sydney, Melbourne, and Geelong, would have been sold at the same rate as similar areas in the country districts. The Governor pointed this out to his chiefs and ventured, pending their decision, to withhold from sale certain lands within five miles of the larger towns. The Government in England partly admitted the mistake made in the instructions, wherein no distinction was made in the situation of lands available at the ruling price ; but, nevertheless, advised the Governor that no difference was to be made in the charge for town lands, other than those he had already reserved. The Governor appealed against this mandate, but ere any determination had been arrived at in the matter by the Imperial authorities, a large area of what soon became highly valuable suburban land, near Melbourne, was bought by one person at a pound per acre, a rate far below what it was to

be valued at per foot in the next generation. In the year 1842, the Governor's position in this matter was adopted by the British Government and, by a measure known as the Crown Lands Sale Act, it was provided that the lands of Australia should be sold by public auction and the general minimum was to be one pound per acre; but this minimum might be raised by the Governor in the case of town lands.

Because it was held that the Governor was largely responsible for the Imperial Act, he was bitterly attacked by Mr. W. C. Wentworth and others. They held that the minimum price was too high. They also assailed him for controlling the proceeds of the land sales, which they held should be at the disposal of the Legislative Council and, also, for his policy in respect to the pastoral leases, wherein he required every grazier to take out a separate licence at a cost of £10 in each case for each run held by him; whereas, till then the squatters had held as many runs as they cared for under the one licence. The policy of the Governor in these matters was wholly wise and did much to prevent the aggregations of enormous freeholds and the division of the western country amongst a small number of leaseholders; but the soundness of his land policy in no degree abated the bitterness of his opponents, who loudly contended that much of the land was not worth the original minimum. Despite their contention, however, the rapid influx of people in search of farms caused the new prices to be paid, with the result that the profits realized by the buyers from their lands, in numbers of cases, did not justify the large expenditure they had gone to in purchasing them.

CHAPTER LXII

THE FIRST PARTLY ELECTIVE LEGISLATURE AND THE AGITATION FOR THE SEPARATION OF THE PORT PHILLIP DISTRICT

From about the year 1833 the agitation for a representative Parliament had been fairly continuous; but it was not till the year 1842 that it was partly successful. At this time the colony of New South Wales embraced the whole of Australia east of the 141st meridian and a great part of the territory, above the 21st parallel to the 129th meridian, as well as a strip

of country on the western side of South Australia between the 132nd and 129th meridians.

At this time, the growth of its free population and the abolition of the convict system had rendered the colony amply ripe for parliamentary institutions ; but the full measure of a free Parliament was not conceded. Instead, by an Act of the Imperial Legislature of 1842, it was provided that a partly elective Legislative Council should be established. This body was to consist of thirty-six members, of whom twenty-four were to be elected by the people and twelve nominated by the Governor. Of the elective members, it was enacted that New South Wales, from the Murray to Moreton Bay, should have twelve representatives and the Port Phillip District, which comprised all the territory that was later on to become the Colony of Victoria, was to return six. No poor man could either vote or become a member of the Council, since it was required that every elector should be possessed of property of the value of at least £200, or should be paying a rent of not less than £20 pound per annum for his dwelling ; whilst no person could become a Councillor who was not possessed of property to the amount of £2000, or who was not in receipt of an annual income of at least £100 from his estate.

The elections for the new Council took place during the year following the passing of the Constitution Act, and the result of the voting was the formation of a Council that the electors had every reason to be proud of, for among the twenty-four members they returned were some whose abilities would have shed lustre on any Parliament. Prominent among these were William Charles Wentworth, William Bland, John Dunmore Lang, Charles Cowper, William Foster, Richard Windeyer, and Charles Nicholson. Among the nominee members sat a particularly able man in the person of Mr. E. Deas Thomson and, after some time, a brilliant debater in Mr. Robert Lowe.

Though not completely a representative body the Council was fairly liberal in its constitution for a time when nearly half of the population was more or less tainted with crime.

With so many men of great ability on its roll, it was reasonable to expect that the new Legislature would acquit itself with credit of the responsibility of making the laws and of bearing a great part of the power and influence formerly possessed by the Governors, and time showed that the expectation was justified.

The same Act that authorized the creation of this Legislative Council also provided for a system of local government. District Councils, elected by the ratepayers, were empowered to impose rates for the formation and maintenance of roads and bridges; but, unfortunately for the success of the scheme, with the responsibility of defraying the cost of local works, the Councils were required to provide half of the funds required for the maintenance of the Police; though the control of the force was to remain vested in the Governor. This was taken exception to by Mr. W. C. Wentworth, the ablest of the popular leaders in the Legislative Council, and, at his instigation, the Legislature declared, very shortly after its first meeting, that the District Councils should not be required to contribute towards the maintenance of a force which was beyond their control. He, also, at the same sitting, induced the Council to assert that the colony should not contribute towards the cost of Imperial convicts, even where these were imprisoned for offences committed by them since their arrival. The Governor assented to the resolution dealing with the proposed payments by the local bodies towards the support of the Police; but the second motion he resolutely declined to endorse. Thenceforth, the Council showed itself opposed to him, and by a series of resolutions antagonistic to his policy this was made plainly evident. Sir George, on his part, duly forwarded the decisions of the Council against his proposals to his chiefs in England, together with critical comments of his own, as able as they were sometimes trenchant and caustic.

CHAPTER LXIII

PROSPERITY AND THE MONETARY CRISIS

In one important respect Governor Gipps commenced his duties under very favourable circumstances. He found that his predecessors had left the colony in an excellent condition. In fact, the ten years ending the year 1840 were to New South Wales a period of almost unexampled prosperity, during which her free inhabitants multiplied so fast that they far outnumbered the convicts; whilst her flocks and herds and agricultural productions had increased in value and quantity by leaps and bounds.

In short, in the third year of his term, the Governor might have reported that, in all respects, the colony was in a flourishing condition; yet it was then on the verge of a crisis of the severest character. Carried away by the prosperity of the previous years the squatters lived frequently in a state of extravagant luxury and by that means involved themselves deeply in debt. This was often greatly increased by the lavish manner in which they spent money in the purchase of stock and lands, when, by reason of the number of buyers, these had reached prices that were often not exceeded by those that had been paid, years before, during the height of the "Sheep and Cattle Mania." Still, debts continued to be increased; for money was to be had very easily from the banks, which seemed to be as reckless in lending as their customers were in borrowing. In the midst of the prevailing extravagance, the price of wool fell, in the English market, and thus many who depended on the receipts from the wool sales to pay their debts did not receive nearly as much for their clips as they had expected. Suddenly, about the same time, Governor Gipps demanded that the banks which were lending money on such easy terms to the pastoralists should pay him seven and seven and a half per cent for all moneys deposited in them by the Government. Forced to do this, the banks were compelled to make up for the interest exacted from them by pressing the pastoralists who were so much indebted to them. Then, as numbers of these could not meet the demands thus made on them, they were compelled to sell their stock; but as vast quantities of cattle and sheep were in this way forced into the market, the price of live stock descended so low that at one of the forced sales a number of sheep were sold at the rate of sixpence each, and at another, a fine flock was disposed of at one and sixpence per head, which was so excessively below the real value of the animals that, a little later, their purchaser obtained over £250 more for the wool on their backs than he had paid for the animals themselves. Cattle owners fared much in the same way, for beasts that in ordinary times were worth seven or eight pounds were sold for seven and sixpence each, and horses which a few months previously were worth as much as sixty pounds were disposed of for seventeen or eighteen shillings.

When things were at the stage that ruin stared every pastoralist in the face, it was discovered by a grazier named O'Brien, who

lived near Yass, that from six to ten shillings' worth of tallow might be obtained from each sheep by boiling its carcase down. When this became known, boiling down live stock was largely resorted to and, by the receipts from this business, many of the squatters were saved from insolvency and were enabled to pay their debts. The result was that the state of affairs in the colony immediately began to improve. But the squatters were not the only sufferers from the crisis; for landed property of all kinds had fallen in value, in almost the same proportion. The farmers were particularly severe sufferers. Numbers of them were indebted to the banks for considerable sums of money, borrowed to pay the high prices which Governor Gipps had exacted for the lands sold under his regulations, and as the properties bought under these circumstances fell exceedingly in value when the monetary crisis came, their purchasers had no longer the security to offer to the banks which their farms had afforded when they were very valuable. Thus, when these unfortunate persons were pressed for payment of the sums they had borrowed, or for such interest on them as they had never anticipated, numbers of them were unable to meet their bills and were forced to dispose of their farms at a time when everyone was anxious to sell and no one to buy. The result was that every sale was ruinous and even those who managed to keep their farms out of the market could get no payable price for their produce.

CHAPTER LXIV

THE LABOUR SHORTAGE

To the other causes of the financial crisis was added the abrupt termination of the system under which the colony had acted as a receptacle for the redundant prisoners of the United Kingdom. However desirable and even necessary it was that this system should cease, the immediate result was a sudden cessation of the expenditure in the colony of the large sums that the maintenance of the prisoners involved and, the more serious one, that a sharp rise in the value of labour ensued at a time when the employers were in no position to afford it and when some of them, relying on the certainty of the usual abundant supply of

unpaid convict labour, had entered into undertakings that were contracted for on that understanding and which, in the face of the largely increased cost, they were unable to carry out. A little later, when labour fell for a time more rapidly than it had risen, they were without funds and quite unable to proceed with their undertakings. For these reasons, no employment was to be obtained, for few people had the means to maintain their own families, and, hence, distress amongst the working classes reached to such a degree that the Governor had to issue food to numbers of persons to save them from starvation. Gradually, however, things began to mend. People became wise from experience and resolved to live within their means, and the return of favourable conditions amongst those pastoralists who had survived the crisis soon again placed the community on a sound footing. Even in the height of the distress that was in that way ended, immigrants had been arriving in considerable numbers, and as many of these were possessed of some means they were enabled by degrees to provide employment on the farms and stations they established for the poorer class of arrivals. Thus, though the number of immigrants who came during Governor Gipps' term exceeded anything that had previously been dreamt of, since nearly seventy thousand persons arrived in five years, it only needed a termination of the distress caused by the monetary crisis, for the whole of the people to find employment and openings for their industry.

In particular, in spite of the fact that the Governor's land regulations were considered to be unfavourable to the squatters, pastoral pursuits advanced towards prosperity and, at the close of the Gipps period, during the year 1846, it was no longer necessary to count the live stock of Australia by thousands but rather by millions.

CHAPTER LXV

AGITATION FOR THE SEPARATION OF PORT PHILLIP AND THE RESIGNATION OF SIR GEORGE GIPPS

Almost from the first meeting of the newly created Legislative Council there was one matter that overshadowed the differences between the Governor and the Councillors and which, whilst its

results might be delayed, declined to be overlooked. This was the continuous dissatisfaction of the representatives of Port Phillip District with the measure of influence that they and their constituents exercised in the deliberations of the Legislature. They held that their District did not receive a fair share of the public expenditure and that it was not, and, in the nature of things, could not be effectively represented in a Legislature sitting in Sydney. The residents of the District concerned did all that was possible to support the contention of their representatives in the Council and they were, in particular, in most hearty accord with a resolution moved by Dr. Lang and seconded by Mr. Robert Lowe, asking for the separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales. The motion, though supported by five of the six Port Phillip members, was rejected by a large majority ; whilst the active opposition of the Governor and many of the Councillors prevented the movement for separation from being successful for several years.

THE SEPARATION OF NEW ZEALAND AND OTHER EVENTS

Whilst the Port Phillip District was vainly seeking to be separated from New South Wales, without an effort on their part, the islands forming the present Dominion of New Zealand were severed from the control of the parent colony, in the year 1841.

The first attempt at colonizing these islands was made in the year 1825, on the shores of the Gulf of Houraki ; but fear of the Maories caused it to be abandoned.

In the year 1839, Colonel Wakefield, the promoter of the South Australian colony, on behalf of an English Company, landed at Port Nicholson, near Cook's Strait, with a number of settlers sent out by his Association. The little colony there grew and prospered and within a year numbered twelve hundred inhabitants. The town they formed received the name of Wellington, and other settlements were made by the Company at New Plymouth and Nelson ; whilst the Governor of New South Wales formed another on the shores of the Gulf of Houraki and named it Auckland. Captain Hobson acted as the representative of the Governor and, when New Zealand was separated from the control of New South Wales, he was appointed to be Governor of the new colony. Thenceforth, the history of New Zealand has had little connection except in occasional matters of joint

interest with that of Australia, from which it is separated by over a thousand miles of deep sea and with which it has no geographical connection.

REMOVAL OF THE MORETON BAY CONVICTS

Another important event that marked the governorship of Sir George Gipps was the removal, in the year 1840, of the convicts from the Moreton Bay settlement and the consequent rapid extinction of the convict element in all the territory embraced in that District. As soon as this became known, the number of free people in the District largely increased and in a very short time the whole of the fine country on the Darling Downs was taken up and became the abode of a prosperous and increasing population of graziers.

Between the political events, there occurred in each of two successive years a remarkable circumstance in the history of Sydney, that was without precedent and which has not been repeated since. This was a fall of snow in the town during the year 1836 and a still heavier one in the following winter. Thirteen years later happened another event of a more important character. This was the ceremony of the turning of the first sod of the first railway on Australian soil. It was for the line that was to extend from Sydney to Parramatta. This event marks the year 1850 as a notable date in the annals of Australian railway development.

DISCOVERIES IN THE GIPPS PERIOD

Among other additions to the discoveries made in previous periods of the history of Australia, the term of Governor Gipps was distinguished by the opening up to settlement of a fine district in the far south-east, where a Scotchman, named McMillan, when seeking good grazing land, southward from the Manero Plains, descended into a fine and fairly level district which, in memory of his native country, he called New South Caledonia ; but keeping his discovery to himself, he lost the honour of giving it a permanent name, a privilege that fell to Count Strzelecki, who, following in McMillan's tracks, a few months later, renamed the country Gippsland. Just before entering it, he had the honour of discovering the highest mountain

in Australia, which, in memory of a patriot who had fought and died for Poland, he called Mount Kosciusko. The discoveries made by Strzelecki were quickly taken advantage of by Port Phillip stock-owners.

Dr. Ludwig Leichhardt was another explorer, who afterwards became famous from his labours and sufferings in the cause of Australian discovery. He began his work, at the latter end of the year 1843, by a bold and difficult expedition from Moreton Bay to the little settlement at Port Essington, on the shores of the Arafura Sea. In the course of his journey he found, among many other streams, the Mackenzie, Burdekin, and Gilbert rivers.

Captain Sturt, starting from Adelaide, in the month of August, 1844, began another of the expeditions by which he added to his previous great services in the cause of Australian discovery. He travelled in a generally northern direction, about half the distance to the Gulf of Carpentaria, discovering on the way what became the greatest silver producing district in Australia. This was in the Stanley or Barrier ranges. In that region his party suffered greatly from the want of water and had to remain for six months in the only locality in that arid country where it was to be found.

In the following year, Major Mitchell sought to add to Sturt's discoveries, in Central Australia, by a journey northward from the Upper Darling. There he came across the Warrego River. His original intention was to find a water-way to the Gulf of Carpentaria, and finding a stream flowing northward, he followed it for some distance, when, being satisfied that he had found the river he was seeking, he returned to Sydney ; but like a number of the inland streams of Australia, the water-course, which he decided went through to the north coast, lost itself in the plains.

Ere Mitchell had completed his explorations, the Governor, under whose auspices he had set out, had ceased to rule, for Sir George Gipps had, during the year 1846, resigned and left for England.

CHAPTER LXVI

THE RENEWAL AND END OF TRANSPORTATION

The successor of Governor Gipps proved to be Sir Charles Fitzroy, who arrived in Sydney, the 3rd of August, 1846.

Unlike his predecessor he could lay claim to no marked abilities, but his disposition was mild and conciliatory, which better fitted him to the circumstances of the time. Besides the sudden death of his wife, who was, early in his governorship, killed by being thrown from her carriage against a tree, at Parramatta, disposed many from sympathy to overlook faults in his private as well as public life.

One of the first difficulties that confronted his government arose over the Transportation Question. Though, in the year 1840, the Imperial authorities had decided that no more convicts were to be sent to New South Wales, yet, during the year 1846, it became known that it was intended to resume transportation, though this time to the vicinity of Port Curtis, on a northerly part of the eastern coast. There were, also, at the time a sufficient number of members of the Legislative Council of the colony who were in favour of a modified form of transportation to enable a Committee, appointed by the Council, to bring up a report that was encouraging to the British authorities in their proposed renewal of the practice of sending convicts to Australia. Happily, a crisis took place in the Imperial Parliament on some other matter, which caused the Ministry to resign, and with the fall of the Government the Port Curtis convict colony scheme dropped.

If there was a majority of the members of the Legislative Council of the colony in favour of the convict system, there was no doubt as to the state of feeling amongst the colonists generally, and that was one of deliberate opposition to it, under any and every shape. The effect of their petitions and public meetings on the members of the Council was marked in the following year by a resolution carried in the chamber, in spite of the opposition of Mr. Wentworth, which unreservedly condemned any attempt to renew transportation. This resolution was ineffectual in staying the hands of those in Great Britain who, on the failure of the Port Curtis scheme, had adopted the idea of sending convicts to the settled parts of Australia. Accordingly, in the year

1849, the Government in England was moved to recommence the Transportation System by sending out two vessels with convicts. It was intended to station some of the prisoners at Port Phillip; but before the arrival of the vessels in the bay there, the people so strongly expressed their opposition and their intention of preventing the landing of the prisoners, even by force, that orders were given to the vessels to proceed—one to Sydney and the other to Moreton Bay. Immediately on the arrival in Port Jackson of one of these ships, the *Hashemy*, a strong feeling of indignation reigned throughout the community and was displayed at one of the largest public meetings that had been held to that date; but this great gathering of the colonists was contemptuously alluded to by the Governor as a mere mob of several hundreds of persons. When this description of the meeting became known a still larger public meeting was held to deny the correctness of the Governor's remarks and to express disapproval of them. At another great gathering, a petition against transportation was unanimously adopted and, with the signatures of over thirty-six thousand persons attached to it, was presented to the Legislative Council. The result of these expressions of public opinion was a unanimous resolution from the Council requesting the Imperial authorities to finally abandon transportation to New South Wales. The effect of the combined influence of the people and their Legislature proved to be too powerful to be withstood by the British advocates of the convict system and so the *Hashemy* was the last prison vessel despatched to Port Jackson.

Van Diemen's Land, which had received even more convicts than New South Wales, was still maintained as a penal settlement, and it was not till the island colony had induced the mainland provinces to join her in an Australian Anti-Convict League that the parent country began to recognize that Transportation to the eastern provinces of Australia must be definitely abandoned; though it was still to be continued to Western Australia for many years. Van Diemen's Land received its last consignment of convicts on the last day of the year 1852. Thenceforth, it ceased to be known by the name that Tasman gave it and was called instead by the fairer name of Tasmania in honour of its discoverer, a name that is not associated with the memories of convict infamy that enshrouded the buried name of Van Diemen's Land.

CHAPTER LXVII

THE COLONIES ACT OF 1850—THE CREATION OF THE COLONY OF VICTORIA

The Constitution of 1842 continued unaltered till the year 1851, when, by virtue of the Australian Colonies Government Act, which had been passed in the previous year by the Imperial Parliament, the District of Port Phillip was separated from New South Wales and formed into a distinct colony, under the name of Victoria. By authority of the same law, each of the two colonies was to have an independent Legislative Council, constituted similarly to that provided for New South Wales by the Act of 1842; but the elective members of each Council were to be chosen by citizens paying a rent of £10, instead of £20 per annum as provided under the old Constitution.

As passed by the House of Commons, the statute of the year 1850 provided for a General or Federal Assembly of delegates from each Australian colony. This Assembly was to have control over customs duties, postage, intercolonial roads, canals and railways, beacons, lighthouses, and several other matters. The Act also provided for a Supreme Court of Appeal from the Courts of the various colonies, but this and all the other Federal provisions were struck out in the House of Lords, and thus the Australian Colonies Government Bill of the year 1850, after providing, as it did, for the establishment of several almost independent States, left them without any body that might form a bond of union between them. In the Legislative Council of New South Wales, chosen in the year 1851, under the provisions of the new Constitution, there were eighteen nominated and thirty-six elected members. Thus, the total number of Councillors was considerably larger than in the former Council; but the proportion of nominee and representative members remained unaltered.

A similar proportion was provided for in the case of the Legislative Council of Victoria, where the quota was ten nominees and twenty elective members. With the passage of this Act the area of New South Wales comprised all the territory lying between Torres Straits, the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Arafura Sea on the north, and the Murray River on the south.

The separation of Victoria formed the third curtailment of the still vast territories of the parent colony.

For several years after its establishment the Legislative Council of Victoria was too much occupied with the new order of things that were brought into existence by the gold-fields discoveries to give much attention to constitutional reforms; but the Legislature of New South Wales began at an early period of its career to devote much consideration to proposed reforms, and, in fact, the great work of its life appeared to be to make provision for the introduction of Responsible Government and to regulate the conditions under which that system should prevail. This task was commenced during the year 1852 by the appointment in the Council of a select Committee to draft the new Constitution. The Committee consisted of nine members, the chief of whom was Mr. W. C. Wentworth. The result of its labours was a report which, among many other important provisions, affirmed the desirability of establishing an hereditary nobility from the members of which a House of Lords was to be chosen. The report, later on, proceeded to declare that "one of the most prominent legislative measures required by the colony and the Australian group, generally, is the establishment at once of a General Assembly to make laws in relation to those intercolonial questions that have arisen or may hereafter arise among them."

The report of the Committee caused much unfavourable comment when it became public, chiefly on account of its proposal for the establishment of an hereditary nobility and a House of Lords.

The feeling against these proposals was soon manifested at a great public meeting presided over by the Mayor of Sydney, Mr. Thurlow. It was resolved, on that occasion, "That this meeting views with surprise and strong feelings of opposition the scheme for the establishment of an Upper House of Crown Nominees and of a certain unprecedented order of colonial nobility."

A still larger meeting was held to support the same views, and in that case Mr. Henry Parkes, who had for several years been recognized as the ablest orator of the Democratic Party, was chief speaker. Dr. Lang, Mr. J. B. Darvall, Mr. D. H. Deniehy and many other men of great ability were also strongly opposed to the establishment of a colonial aristocracy, and the

result of their united efforts, as expressed in public meetings and otherwise, was that the part of the Select Committee's report affecting an Hereditary Nobility and a House of Lords was not accepted by the Legislative Council. The Council further decided that it was not expedient to incorporate the provisions for a Federal Parliament in the New South Wales Constitution Act, though it was hoped that the Imperial Parliament would deal with the subject in a separate Bill.

CHAPTER LXVIII

COAL MINING AND THE GREAT GOLD DISCOVERIES

The year 1847 was marked by an event that, though little noticed at the time, was of considerable importance. This was the end of the twenty-one years' monopoly which the A. A. Company had enjoyed of the coal mining of the colony. For several years, previous to the one mentioned, there had been a considerable decrease in the record output of 40,000 tons of the year 1842; but immediately after the end of the Company's monopoly others went into the coal-mining industry and soon a rapid increase was observed in the quantity of coal obtained, and this has continued with little interruption up to the present day.

Useful and valuable as was the coal production, it had not materially increased the population or progress of the colony; but within four years of the termination of the A. A. Company's monopoly of the coal-mining industry an event took place that was eventually to effect great changes economically, socially, and politically throughout a great part of Australia. This was the discovery, in the year 1851, of proofs of the existence of gold in considerable quantities in New South Wales. But long before it was conclusively proved that the precious metal existed in payable quantities in Australia, there were not wanting persons who believed that such a discovery would be made. The first reliable record of the finding of evidence of its existence is contained in the note made at the Fish River, near Bathurst, by Mr. Surveyor McBrian, on the 15th of February, 1823. Mr. McBrian's note states that at that place, he found "numerous

particles of gold in the sand, in the hills convenient to the river."

Towards the end of the year 1839, Count Strzelecki informed Governor Gipps that he had found traces of the precious metal amongst the mountains of the Dividing Range; but having been requested by the Governor not to publish his discovery, owing to the probability that it would cause disorder amongst the convict element of the population, he courteously complied. About two years later, the Rev. W. B. Clarke, a resident of Sydney, who had gained a reputation as a geologist, made known his opinion that gold existed in Australia. Subsequently he proved the correctness of his belief by producing samples of the metal that he had found on the western slopes of the Blue Mountains; but Sir George Gipps, who was present on the occasion, was more anxious about the convicts than pleased to see the specimens and, repeating the request he had made to Strzelecki, he warningly remarked, "Put it away, Mr. Clarke, or we will all have our throats cut." About the same time, in London, Sir Roderick Murchison, a scientist of wide renown, stated to the Royal Geographical Society that he believed that Australia would prove a gold-bearing country. In the year 1846, he repeated that opinion on the ground that there was a great resemblance between the gold-bearing rocks of the Ural Mountains of Russia and the rocks of the Blue Mountains of New South Wales. Nevertheless, none of these opinions led to any serious search for gold in Australia, and though from time to time there were rumours that different persons had discovered small quantities of it, they were not generally believed, and it was reserved for a man of no scientific education, but of some practical experience as a miner, to apprise the world of the riches that lay beneath the soil of the continent. This was Mr. Edward Hargraves. Of him it is related that he left his home at Bathurst, in the year 1849, for the scene of the great gold discoveries in California, and though he was unsuccessful in his search there for the precious metal, he learnt how it was to be sought for and separated from the earth and other substances which surround it. But he discovered something else; for he noticed that there was a great resemblance between a certain valley amongst the mountains of New South Wales and the spot in California where he was digging for gold and where much of that metal had been obtained. This resemblance occurred so

frequently to his mind that he at length resolved to return to Australia. Having reached Sydney, he set out alone for the place of his dreams. Arrived there and setting to work with a spade and tin dish, he had soon the satisfaction, when washing some of the grey-coloured soil in his pan, to behold several particles of gold at the bottom. This was on the 12th of February, 1851, a date to be remembered in our annals as the one of the first discovery of gold in Australia, which was of real service to mankind. The place of the discovery was a gully, or the bed of a mountain torrent, opening out on to Summerhill Creek, in the Bathurst District.

Hargraves did not rest content with success in one spot, but made trials in several other places in the locality and always with encouraging results. Having satisfied himself beyond a doubt that the precious metal existed in considerable quantities in the district, he wrote to the Government offering, for a reward of five hundred pounds, to point out where gold could be found in abundance in the colony. He was informed in reply that no reward could be given till he had given proofs of the value of his knowledge. Hargraves accepted the condition and, in company with the Government geologist, set out for Summerhill Creek. The result of their prospecting labours there and at other localities in the neighbouring country was so encouraging that the geologist was satisfied that the district was of a rich gold-bearing character and he reported accordingly to the Government. Directly this news became known there was a rush of people from all directions to the locality of the discoveries, and the success of many of them at Summerhill Creek and Lewis Ponds caused searches to be made in other districts. Soon reports came pouring in that gold was being found in many places widely apart, prominent amongst which, in addition to the localities previously mentioned, were Sofala, on the Turon River, Oakey Creek, Meroo Creek, Tuena, on the Abercrombie River, Araluen and the Hanging Rock, on the Peel River, and some of these continued to produce payable quantities of the precious metal for many years.

The Meroo Creek gold-field was discovered by an aboriginal shepherd who, whilst following his flock, in the year 1851, amused himself by searching for gold, which was then the business of thousands of persons. On one occasion, happening to strike a quartz rock with a tomahawk, as he moved along, he knocked

off a lump of stone and disclosed a perfect mass of the precious metal. He hastened with the news of his find to his employer, who quickly removed the metal from the rock. Taking it to Bathurst some fifty miles from the scene of its discovery, he was delighted to find that his treasure weighed 102 lbs. 9 ozs. of pure gold, which was worth about £4000. Whilst there were few instances of such discoveries, the finding of nuggets, or lumps of the precious metal weighing from thirty to one hundred ounces were occasionally recorded at the Turon, at Ophir, and other localities.

For a considerable period all the gold obtained was won by surface searching or by digging along the banks and in the dry beds of the mountain streams; but in course of time most of the places which had commenced to be worked during and shortly after the year 1851 ceased to yield payable results to the diggers and were abandoned, and though alluvial discoveries of considerable value were afterwards made at Delegate, Uralla, Mount Browne, Kiandra, Peak Hill, and a number of other places, the bulk of the gold obtained was, gradually, more and more derived from quartz or reef mining, and, as a rule, this was carried on in the country where the alluvial workings had been abandoned. In more recent years a considerable portion of the gold yield came from dredging the rivers and creeks in auriferous regions; but reefing still supplies the larger portion of the total.

The principal yield in late years has been obtained from Cobar in the west, Tumut and Adelong, and the Lachlan district; but the early fields, such as the Bathurst, Turon, Mudgee, Peel, and Uralla districts, still contribute substantial returns.

Altogether, up to the end of 1913—the period of the latest available returns—New South Wales had contributed over sixty millions of pounds' worth of gold as her share of the world's production.

Following quickly on the gold discoveries in New South Wales were others of a much more important character, in Victoria—an extended account of which is given elsewhere. The first of these was made at Clunes in the year 1851 by a Mr. W. Campbell, but his report of this discovery was ignored at the time; yet the discoveries made in the succeeding year were such as astonished the world.

CHAPTER LXIX

THE EFFECT OF THE GOLD DISCOVERIES ON THE PRIMARY INDUSTRIES

Whilst the final results of the gold discoveries made wholly for good and served to enormously increase the scanty population of Australia and to place it in a position of prosperity and importance beyond anything that the most sanguine could have anticipated, their first effect in 1851 and the succeeding years, on some of the permanent industries, was undoubtedly disastrous; for if, in time, the gold-fields were to send crowds of settlers on the land, they threatened, for some time, to cause the abandonment of the lands already settled and the withdrawal of all labour to the better paying occupations provided at the gold-diggings. In fact, the disturbance of the labour market was so much felt in every part of Australia, that, during the height of the gold fever, shepherds and agricultural labourers were almost unprocurable. The immediate result of this was a thorough disorganisation of the landed industries. In every part of Australia sheep were left unwatched and unshorn and farms untilled; yet the final result when the receipts from the gold-fields fell off was that when men returned to their natural occupations they found many more employers, for thousands had made money and very many of these invested their gains in farms or stations. Hence, an immense impetus was given to farming and grazing production.

The increase in the live-stock wealth of the colonies was in some respects greater than the mere increase in the number of animals would show; for owing to the vast influx of population, during a few years, a great local demand for meat caused the slaughter of large numbers of animals, particularly sheep. Nevertheless, the actual increase in the number of live stock during a few years was very considerable. In the year 1851, just before the gold discoveries, there were in the various colonies about 200,000 horses, 2,000,000 cattle, and 16,000,000 sheep; and in the year 1856, when thousands of persons from the gold-fields had scattered themselves on the lands, Australia counted her live stock at 300,000 horses, 3,000,000 cattle, and 18,000,000 sheep.

The growth of agriculture during the same period was un-

precedented; for whilst the total land under cultivation, just before the discovery of gold, was about 440,000 acres, the year 1856 saw 650,000 acres under crop.

One remarkable effect of the general rush of labourers of all kinds to the gold-diggings was that the almost universal custom of keeping sheep in folds or hurdle-pens at night had to be abandoned. That practice had been observed to protect the sheep from the ravages of the dingo or native dog. It caused the sheep at every station to be divided into flocks, each in charge of a shepherd. But when there were no longer shepherds for the flocks, the owners had to let the sheep remain at their feeding grounds all night and to endeavour to free them from the attacks of the native dogs in the best way they could. Several means were tried to get rid of these noxious animals with little success; but when at length poison was resorted to, it proved effectual in destroying such numbers of them that in a short time the pastoralists found that their flocks could remain without protection at night. The result was that the need for shepherds soon almost ceased to exist, and as a very great saving was thus caused, each grazier could afford to keep many more sheep and, but for the necessity of fences to keep different kinds of flocks from mixing, the sheep, in immense paddocks, were allowed to wander almost at will with good results both to their wool and condition. Hence, from that time, the squatters ceased to have any fear of multiplying their flocks, beyond a consideration for the number of animals their runs would support. Thus, the scarcity of labour that the gold-diggings brought about had a very considerable effect in increasing the live stock of Australia, and in spite of occasional checks by severe droughts, the flocks, on the whole, continuously multiplied over the whole face of the continent.

CHAPTER LXX

EXPLORATIONS AND OTHER EVENTS OF THE MIDDLE OF THE CENTURY

Another interesting event took place in the year 1852. It was the building of a steamer by Mr. Francis Cadell for the purposes of exploration and trade on the Murray and Darling rivers.

During the following year, in this steamboat, he ascended the Murray for 1350 miles. He, subsequently, steamed for nearly 500 miles up the Darling River.

Unfortunately, all the explorers of this period were not so successful as Cadell, though some of them were men of greater renown than he. Among these was the celebrated Dr. Ludwig Leichhardt. This brave but unfortunate explorer commenced his second and last journey of exploration during the year 1846 from a point on the Moreton Bay District coast with the intent to cross the continent to the Swan River; but being overtaken by fever and other misfortunes, whilst entangled in the Expedition Mountains, he was compelled to retire for a time to recover himself. He then recommenced his journey from the Darling Downs. Several months later he was met by an adventurous stock-owner, by whom he sent back word that he was full of hopes that the Almighty would enable him to succeed in his darling scheme; but after this he disappeared to be heard of no more. He undoubtedly perished of thirst or the spears of the blacks.

In the year 1847, Mr. Surveyor Kennedy was instructed by the Governor to trace the course of the river that Sir Thomas Mitchell believed would prove to be the Victoria, which disembogues into the Gulf of Carpentaria. Kennedy found that Mitchell's theory was incorrect and that the stream, which it was hoped continued to the northern coast, turned to the south-west a little beyond the point where Sir Thomas left its banks and was, Kennedy thought, soon lost in the midst of an arid tract of country.

In the following year this explorer was chosen to lead a party for the exploration of Cape York Peninsula. He started in a north-easterly direction from Rockingham Bay, till he reached the Palmer River, and then turned towards Weymouth Bay, where he left all his people, except a black named Jackey Jackey. With this companion he attempted to reach the northern extremity of the peninsula; but was speared by the natives when within a short distance of the coast. Acting according to his master's instructions Jackey Jackey was able to reach the seashore with the records of the expedition.

Including Leichhardt, whose fate at the same time was unknown, the death of Kennedy added a third to the list of fatalities in the cause of Australian discovery, the death of

Mr. Cunningham, who perished in the Bogan country, being the first.

Amongst other events of this period that deserve to be chronicled was the founding, during the year 1852, of the Sydney University, the first institution of the kind that was established in Australia.

As deplorable, as the beginning of the University was satisfactory, was a great flood in the Murrumbidgee River, during the same year. In this overflow the river swept over the town of Gundagai and drowned eighty of the residents.

CHAPTER LXXI

THE ADVENT OF RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

On the 17th of January, 1855, Sir Charles Fitzroy terminated a long period of nine years in the governorship by retiring to England. He was the last vice-regal personage who was invested with the power of ruling independently; but if his powers were greater than those of his successors, they were less than those of the men who preceded him.

As, from his time onward, the Governors were no longer rulers, their arrivals, periods in, or departures from, Australia, more largely partook of the nature of social, than of political events and, therefore, the necessity to record them will not be so apparent; and shortly after the arrival of his successor, Sir William Denison, the new order of things was about to begin.

It was ushered in by two events, of which one was of peace, the other of war; for war was raging in 1855, between Great Britain and Russia. In consequence, steps were taken to fortify Port Jackson. A single memento of this and of the fortification of the period remains in a martello tower which stands out in the harbour opposite to Government House. It was named, after the Governor, Fort Denison. It is now used chiefly as a dividing and directing mark for the port traffic. The peace occurrence was the completion of the length of railway, between Sydney and Parramatta. It is used to-day for its original purpose—only increased enormously in strength and extent.

With that we come to the event of the year—Responsible Government—and these had been the preliminaries :—

Amended by the omission of the clauses dealing with an hereditary nobility and by the elimination of the Federal proposals, the report of the Constitutional Committee of the Legislative Council, made in 1852, was adopted by the Chamber on the 21st of December, 1853. It provided for a Parliament consisting of two Houses, to be known, respectively, as the Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Assembly was to consist of 54 members, elected for five years, by all of the male citizens possessed of a freehold of the value of £100 and upwards ; or paying an annual rent of not less than £10 ; or, if lodgers, not less than £40 for their accommodation.

The Council was to consist of not less than 21 members who were to be nominated by the Governor. The first members were to be appointed for five years ; but after the expiration of that period all appointments to the Chamber were to be for life.

The Bill embodying the foregoing provisions received the concurrence of the Imperial Parliament and the Royal assent in the middle of the year 1855 and, on the 19th of December, of that year, it came into force as the Constitution Act of New South Wales.

The first Parliament, assembled under the new Constitution, met on the 22nd of May, 1856, and commenced its career with Mr. S. H. Donaldson as Premier.

CHAPTER LXXII

AMENDMENTS OF THE CONSTITUTION

Though the Constitution of 1855 was a great improvement, on that which it replaced, it was not long before attempts to amend it were successfully made. The first of these was introduced, as early as the year 1858, when the property qualification for electors was abolished and manhood suffrage established for the election of members of the Assembly.

The same Electoral Act established the system of Vote by Ballot, under which electors could record their suffrages without

incurring the risk of obtaining the ill-will of those who might differ from them in opinions.

In the year 1874, at the instance of the Government of Mr. Henry Parkes, another important amendment was made whereby the Quinquennial system of electing the members of the Assembly was altered to the Triennial practice.

Six years later, the same statesman was the cause of a further amendment whereby the number of members was made to increase with the growth of the population. This system, though it seemed to promise well, was soon found to be enlarging the Assembly out of all proportion to the needs of the people and, in no long time, it was found desirable to eliminate the provision for further increase in the roll of members; whilst a subsequent amendment provided for a substantial decrease, but one that was by no means considered by numbers of the people to be adequate, and endeavours have been made from time to time to bring about a further reduction.

CHAPTER LXXIII

THE MORETON BAY DISTRICT BECOMES THE COLONY OF QUEENSLAND

Just as the business of the Legislative Council of New South Wales, in the time of Governors Gipps and Fitzroy, was impeded by the discontent of the Port Phillip representatives, so was that of the first constitutional Parliament of the colony disturbed by the urgent demands of the Moreton Bay members for the separation of their district from the parent colony. By degrees, it began to be conceded in Sydney that the demands of the Moreton Bay people were so well founded that they could not be successfully resisted, and so, making a virtue of necessity, the Middle District or Sydney legislators decided to agree to the separation.

But as had happened in the case of the parting with the Port Phillip District, the Sydney members determined to concede the minimum of territory that would meet with acceptance by the representatives of the northern provinces. In other words, they purposed to make the boundary of the Moreton Bay District as far north as they could. On the other hand, the people

of Moreton Bay wanted to have their boundary placed as far south as possible. They desired, in fact, to have the Clarence River basin included in their colony; but with the aid of the Governor, the Parliament of New South Wales successfully maintained its claim to have the boundary fixed on the coast at Point Danger and from there inland. Accordingly, when in the year 1859 the District of Moreton Bay became the Colony of Queensland, its southern limit, beginning at Point Danger, was the Macpherson Range, from the western termination of which it followed the course of the Dumaresq and then of the MacIntyre River to the 29th parallel and thence ran along that line to the 141st meridian.

The new colony was given a Constitution similar to that of New South Wales. The appointment of the members of its first Legislative Council, the arrangement of the constituencies, the apportionment of the representatives and other provisions for the election of the members of the first Assembly, were left in the hands of the Governor of New South Wales.

ALTERED BOUNDARIES

The establishment of the colony of Queensland left New South Wales still with territories far beyond the present borders. Of these the parent colony parted to South Australia, in the year 1863, with the strip of territory lying between the 132nd and 129th meridians, and, at the same time, the western limit of Queensland, north of the 26th parallel, was extended to the 138th meridian; whilst the great area lying between the 138th and 129th meridians and between the 26th parallel and the Arafura Sea and portion of the Gulf of Carpentaria was formed into a separate province, under the name of the Northern Territory; but being almost without population it was unfitted to stand alone and was in the same year handed over, temporarily, to South Australia, which had expressed a willingness to undertake the responsibility.

From the separation of Queensland, New South Wales was bounded on the north by the lines named as the southern limits of Queensland: on the south by those given as the northern boundary of Victoria; on the west by the 141st meridian, and on the east by the Pacific Ocean. Between these confines, the first-born colony contained, as it still does, an area of about

310,000 square miles, and with a length, between the longest points, of about 900 miles and a greatest breadth of some 800 miles.

CHAPTER LXXIV

THE COUNCIL AND THE ASSEMBLY

Whilst New South Wales has not encountered such serious difficulties between the two chambers of her Parliament as have occurred in Victoria, Tasmania, and South Australia, where, in each case, the system of election on a property basis for the second branch of the Legislature prevails, very early in her history, under the Constitution of 1855, it was evident that there was a fundamental difference in the opinions held by the members of the Nominee Chamber and those professed by the men of the Assembly. This marked diversity of ideas was made particularly apparent over the Robertson Land Bill of 1861, a measure which provided that any person on payment of 5s. per acre, as part of the full payment of £1 per acre, might select land on an area, whether unoccupied Crown Land or on country leased from the State. The latter provision was felt to be unfair to the lease-holders, and as the Council was largely a reflex of the opinions of the squatters and of other persons and corporations interested in land, such as the financial institutions, the strongest antagonism was shown to Mr. Robertson's measure when it appeared in the Council. Seeing that there was no reason to believe that this opposition would subside, the Governor—Sir John Young—was advised by the Premier, Mr. Cowper, to sanction the appointment of twenty-one new members to the Council, that being the number required in the Chamber to convert the Government minority on the Bill into a majority.

But it happened after the nomination of the new Councillors that the five years' term for which the members of the first Council were chosen was about to terminate. Supported by this circumstance, when the new members attended at the Council Chamber to be sworn in, the President of the Council resigned his position and retired from the Chamber, followed by most of the old members. Thus, the meeting fell through and, before another one was held, the five years' tenure of the members expired.

Just at this time, Mr. Wentworth, who had long resided in Great Britain, returned to Sydney on a visit. Availing himself of this circumstance, the Premier consulted with him and, as a result, Mr. Wentworth was appointed President of the Legislative Council with the implied understanding that he would assist the Government, at least as far as the Land Bill was concerned, and, as we have seen, the Government had sufficient nominees in the Chamber to ensure the passing of that measure, which was accordingly, with some minor amendments, safely piloted through the Council. Yet in nominating members for life to the Chamber the Government had taken no steps to ensure that the new Councillors would be generally in sympathy with democratic ideas. The new President, himself, though broadly a man of liberal opinions, was far from having a belief in Democracy, as had been abundantly evident throughout his career, particularly in his attempt to establish an hereditary nobility and a House of Lords in Australia. At this time, not only he, but a large majority of the members of the Council were strongly opposed to manhood suffrage. Hence, when the Cowper Government desired to provide that the Council should be elective by the same voters, though grouped in larger constituencies, as returned the members of the Assembly, the proposed reform was decisively rejected, and from that time onward, till quite recently, the Council continued to display a marked contrast in opinion to the Assembly on every measure likely to affect the interest of property. The recent change in the attitude of the Chamber has not been developed through any real alteration in the opinions of the Councillors, but rather out of a politic consideration for the belief that the Assembly has the power to have sufficient members nominated to the Council to carry its point and even to most seriously endanger the existence of the Chamber.

CHAPTER LXXV

FURTHER EVENTS AND EXPLORATIONS OF THE FIFTIES

Nearly a year after the meeting of the first ruling Parliament, the people of Australia received the news of an event of a wholly different character; for during 1857 it was heard with grief,

in many a home in the parent colony, that the fine ship *Dunbar* had, during a storm at night, crashed into the cliffs on the southern side of the entrance to Port Jackson and had been totally lost with all her large number of passengers and crew, except one man, who escaped through being washed into a cleft in the face of the cliff.

An event of an auspicious character signalized the following year, in the completion of the electric telegraph line from Sydney to Melbourne.

This year was, also, interesting as that of the removal of the descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty* from Pitcairn Island to Norfolk Island and of the founding in Sydney of the first Australian museum.

This period was not marked by any great geographical discoveries, though it was distinguished by repeated endeavours to solve the secrets of the interior of the continent. Of these, one of the most important was an expedition which, in the year 1855, started from the shores of Cambridge Gulf, under Mr. A. C. Gregory. His purpose was to explore the country along the courses of the Victoria, Albert, and Roper rivers. This work he satisfactorily completed and then set out for the eastern coast, where he safely arrived, at Moreton Bay.

This successful traveller resumed his explorations in the year 1858, when he started from Brisbane to seek for the missing explorer, Leichhardt. He followed the line of the country which that explorer was supposed to have taken and found some traces of him in various places; but, at length, becoming convinced that the missing explorer had perished of thirst, he abandoned the search and turned towards Adelaide, which he safely reached. During this journey Gregory proved that the river which Mitchell had believed to be the Victoria, and which Kennedy reported as probably losing itself in the desert, reappeared beyond in the stream which Sturt had discovered and named Cooper's Creek, but which in the upper part of its course is known as the Barcoo.

The ease with which Gregory had crossed the continent in one direction inspired the South Australian Government to encourage an attempt to cross it directly from Adelaide to the northern coast. This undertaking was resolved on by Mr. J. McDouall Stuart, who, after two attempts, succeeded on his third expedition in reaching the shores of the Indian Ocean, at Van Diemen's Gulf.

CHAPTER LXXVI

THE BURKE AND WILLS EXPEDITION AND THE RELIEFS SENT OUT

About the time Sturt was starting on his first and uncompleted northern journey, widespread interest was taken throughout Australia in the Burke and Wills expedition which left Melbourne on the 20th of August, 1860, and having reached the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria, returned to perish by slow starvation in the country near Cooper's Creek. It is now generally agreed that more was made of the merits of this undertaking than the way it was managed deserved. Neither of the leaders was an experienced bushman, consequently, their progress was marked by errors of judgment and foresight that finally resulted in the death of both of the leaders, of Gray, one of their company, and very nearly of King, another of the party.

Whilst little of value was learned from the tale of the survivors, their tragic journey was indirectly the cause of important discoveries. From four different localities rescue parties were sent out, and by the results of the researches of these a large part of the northern half of Eastern Australia that was previously shown as a blank on the maps was fairly explored, with much benefit to Australian settlement.

Of these expeditions, Queensland sent three, including that of Mr. Gregory previously referred to—one under Mr. Walker, who, subsequently, reported that he had found traces of Burke's camels going to and from the Albert River, thus proving that Burke had reached the Gulf; and the third, under Mr. Landsborough, who was altogether unsuccessful in finding any traces of Burke's party, but, instead, discovered a large tract of fine pastoral country on the Thomson and Warrego rivers.

South Australia sent out a noble party under McKinlay, who succeeded in finding the place where Gray, one of the dead explorers, was laid, but came to the conclusion from the manner in which the body was buried, that the interment was the work of the blacks and that they had massacred and eaten all the remaining members of Burke's party. He called the lagoon near where the body was found, from this belief, Lake Massacre. McKinlay afterwards made a journey to the Gulf of Carpentaria

with comparative ease. But whilst he had been accusing the blacks of murdering the Burke party, Howitt, who represented Victoria in the work of relief, had succeeded in finding King, one of its members, alive with them and had learnt from him the true history of the unfortunate expedition.

After his return to Melbourne, Howitt set forth again and brought back the remains of Burke and Wills. On the arrival of these relics of mortality in Melbourne, a public funeral was accorded them and, in a short time, a fine monument was erected in the city to commemorate the labours and fate of the explorers.

With the expedition of Burke and Wills and the number of others which sprang from it, the work of exploration in Eastern Australia was practically completed, for thenceforth there existed no considerable district, nor any important natural feature in all the country lying between the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Southern Ocean that had not been seen and noted by some adventurous traveller. It might also be said that by the end of the year 1860 all the existing colonies of the continent, except Western Australia, had been fully established with free institutions and with all the conditions requisite for the growth of flourishing and progressive States.

CHAPTER LXXVII

LAMBING FLAT TROUBLES AND AN AGE OF CONFERENCES

During the year 1861 the presence of numerous Chinese amongst the white diggers on the alluvial gold-fields of Lambing Flat, near the New South Wales town of Young, caused such serious dissatisfaction amongst the Europeans that they at length resolved to expel the Asiatics from their neighbourhood, and this they proceeded to do. Their action having been reported to the Government, a body of some two hundred troops was sent from Sydney to restore order and to protect the Chinese, who, however, had left the locality when the troops arrived. Some of the white diggers were arrested for their part in the recent disturbances and were brought to trial at Goulburn; but the jury acquitted them and generally, throughout the colony, the sympathy of a large section of the population was with the

Europeans of the field in their objection to the presence amongst them of Asiatics. Largely as a result of this state of public feeling, a Chinese Immigration Restriction Bill was introduced into Parliament and was passed on the 27th of November. By the law thus enacted, a poll tax of £10 per head was imposed on all Chinese entering the State.

The long opposition of a section of the people to the prevailing system of State aid to religion was successful in the year 1862, when Parliament enacted a law which provided for the gradual cessation of all grants of public funds for religious purposes.

During the year 1863, an Intercolonial Conference was held in Melbourne to discuss the question of a uniform tariff, intercolonial Customs duties, transportation from the United Kingdom to the Australian provinces, an immigration fund, the improvement of inland rivers for purposes of navigation and irrigation, coastal lighthouses, ocean mails, uniform legislation to deal with bankruptcy, patents, joint-stock companies, probates and appeals, a General Court of Appeal, and a Uniform System of Weights and Measures.

A tariff was agreed to by the Conference and it was resolved that the delegates should present it to their several Parliaments and endeavour to have it adopted by them without alteration. As to intercolonial tariffs, it was agreed that Customs duties should be paid to the colony whose population consumed the dutiable goods.

On the Transportation question it was decided that a Committee should be appointed to prepare an address to the Queen praying that Her Majesty would refuse her signature to any proposition to renew transportation to any part of her Australian possessions.

Among other agreements, it was resolved that it was of the highest importance to encourage a healthy system of immigration from the United Kingdom and that a cental system of weights and measures should be adopted throughout Australia.

Much of what this Conference resolved should be done remained wholly undealt with for more than a generation and the cental measures and inland rivers questions still remain in an unsatisfactory state.

In the year 1865, another Intercolonial Conference met in Sydney primarily to consider the question of Border Duties. The result was a decision in favour of a uniform tariff; but

this intention got no further than the Conference, whose work generally was shelved in Parliament.

A Conference, convened mainly for Postal reasons, met in Melbourne during the year 1867, which, amongst other proposals, considered a resolution, moved by one of the Victorian delegates, for the establishment of a Federal Council, consisting of representatives from the Australian provinces. The proposal was adopted by the Conference.

Later on in the year, Mr. Henry Parkes attempted, in the Legislature of New South Wales, to give effect to the decision of the Conference and to that end moved for the appointment of representatives in the proposed Council; but though the Bill providing for such representatives passed the Assembly, it was ruled out of order in the Upper House.

Another of the proposals of the late Conference and of the preceding one was more successful; for, during the year 1867, an agreement with Victoria was sanctioned by the Legislature whereby the collection of duties on goods arriving in New South Wales, by way of the Murray River, was suspended for five years in consideration of the payment by the southern colony of the sum of £60,000 per annum, which it was assumed was the amount that Victoria collected on imports that were eventually distributed in the Riverine district. This was the first real progress, and that only of a partial and temporary character, that had been made towards Australian unity, after the repeated failures of a long generation. It was, perhaps, fitting that this small beginning should have been made, largely through the efforts of the statesman who in after years was to be the great man of that Federal movement which he was to lead to within sight of victory.

But back in the year 1866, and for some time after, Parkes was more concerned in the question of establishing a system of education in his colony, and thus in that year he was responsible for the passing of a Bill which provided for a system of public instruction which it was hoped by him and its supporters, generally, would attract the children of all sections of the population to the State schools, but which was not destined to fully realize their hopes in that respect; though it proved so successful in other directions that it was long before any attempt was made to amend it.

CHAPTER LXXVIII

BUSHRANGERS AND SOCIAL EVENTS OF THE SIXTIES

During the period from 1862 to 1867 some of the southern districts of the colony were terrorized by bushrangers, of whom the most notorious were the brothers Clarke and, for a shorter time than they, a man named Frank Gardiner, who had escaped from prison, where he was serving a sentence of penal servitude. After committing several daring bush robberies Gardiner got away to northern Queensland, where he remained undetected for several years through living quietly and honestly.

The Clarkes were enabled for a considerable time to avoid capture, through the aid and sympathy of a low type of the bush population, whereof females proved to be, as spies and scouts, the most efficient allies of the outlaws. Happily, in the year 1867, the Clarkes were taken and soon after expiated their crimes at the hands of the hangman.

Gardiner, who was brought back to Sydney from his Queensland refuge, was convicted and sentenced to thirty-two years' imprisonment; but when he had served but a small portion of his sentence he was released by Governor Robinson, after some influentially signed petitions had been presented which set forth that the convict's Queensland life furnished ample evidence that he had reformed and desired to live honestly. However, the Governor's use, in this matter, of the prerogative of pardon caused a great outcry and votes of censure in Parliament were carried which, though aimed directly at the Governor, caused the retirement from office of his adviser, Mr. Parkes. Meanwhile, the released prisoner was quietly shipped away from Sydney, and it was subsequently reported that he was living in America, where, some years later, he is supposed to have died, after a miserable existence.

The year 1867 was remarkable for great floods in the Hunter District, by which an immense amount of property on the farms and in the towns was destroyed. Happily, with one or two exceptions, human life was not affected.

Far different was the result of a calamity that occurred in the previous year; for, in the wreck of the *Cawarra* on the rocks near Newcastle, but one man was saved of the large number of souls on board.

Another calamity of this period was the destruction in Sydney, by fire, during the year 1865, of the fine cathedral of St. Mary's. Happily, this loss was not without a subsequent advantage; for as time passed, a replacing and grander-looking structure began to arise on the site, and now the new, almost finished cathedral is one of the noblest of the ecclesiastical structures that are to be found in the southern hemisphere.

The first visit of a member of the Royal Family of Great Britain to Australia took place early in the year 1868, when Prince Alfred, Duke of Edinburgh, landed in Sydney. There, as well as in every other capital of the continent, and in fact in all places he visited, he received a splendid and enthusiastic welcome; but, when attending a festival gathering at the marine resort of Clontarf, on the shores of one of the arms of Port Jackson, he was approached by a man named O'Farrell, who fired at him from a revolver and seriously wounded him; but fortunately not mortally, and it was not long before the recovery of the Prince was assured. As for O'Farrell, he was seized immediately after his intended assassination by the enraged crowd, who would have summarily lynched him, had he not been protected by the police, who bore him away to prison, whence he only emerged for trial and subsequently death by the rope. But the execution of the would-be assassin and the recovery of his intended victim did not close the unhappy incident, which had consequences that caused bitterness and unmerited suffering amongst a large section of the community for years afterwards, and one of the immediate effects of it was to induce the passing through Parliament, at the instance of Mr. James Martin, who was afterwards Chief Justice, of a piece of panic legislation known as the Treason-Felony Act, which was soon considered a blot on the statute book.

CHAPTER LXXIX

THE DEPARTURE OF THE IMPERIAL TROOPS FROM AUSTRALIA

The first year of the next decade—the year 1870—should be remembered. It was that of the withdrawal of all Imperial troops from Australia. There was no pressing need for this policy. Great Britain was at peace with all the world and was

not moved by financial necessity ; but her politicians and many of her leading people had long been influenced by the idea that the colonies were a useless burden to the mother country ; that their natural destiny was to become independent nations and that, therefore, they should begin to provide their own defences. These ideas were not confined to any one section of the politicians of Britain, for Liberal and Conservative men of the front rank held them alike.

As a result of the withdrawal of the Imperial forces, each of the colonies in which they had been located started to form companies of volunteers, and to raise some paid troops for service in their capital cities.

New South Wales made her first general assembly of her troops, to the number of several thousands, at Ham Common, near the town of Richmond, during the year 1873.

CHAPTER LXXX

CONFERENCES ON THE FISCAL RIGHTS OF THE COLONIES

An important Conference was held in Melbourne in the year 1870 to consider the desirability of forming a Customs Union for the Australian Colonies and the removal of all restrictions on intercolonial free trade. The Conference failed to arrive at any definite agreement ; but on several other matters unanimity was secured. It was decided, in particular, to urge the establishment of a British Protectorate over the Fiji Islands and to, once more, recommend to the several colonies the desirability of introducing the cental system of weights and measures.

In the following year, another Conference, sitting in Melbourne, primarily to deal with postal matters, went much further. At this gathering the Victorian representatives proposed certain resolutions insisting on the right of the colonies to make intercolonial tariffs without limitations. Subject to the consent of the Queensland Government, whose delegates were not empowered to deal with the matter, the Conference unanimously adopted the resolutions, which stated : –

" That we, the delegates from New South Wales, Victoria, Tasmania, and South Australia, now assembled in Melbourne,

having under consideration the despatch of Lord Kimberley, dated the 13th of July, 1871, have agreed to a joint memorandum in reference to that despatch. We are of opinion that the right of these colonies to direct and control their fiscal policy, as among themselves, without interference from Her Majesty's Ministers in London is a right which it is our duty to assert and maintain. . . ."

The Conference proceeded to emphatically deny any sympathy with those in the Imperial Parliament and elsewhere who favoured the separation of the colonies from Great Britain and then stated that : —

" By the agreement made between Victoria and New South Wales in 1867, free trade across, or by way of the Murray, was established and free trade between the colonies by sea or land might then have been established if it had been thought expedient. Nothing has since occurred to justify any interference between the same colonies. It is of great importance that a cordial understanding should at all times prevail among these colonies, and to that end nothing can be more conducive than a free exchange of their products and manufactures among themselves. We all agree that efforts should be made in our respective Legislatures to provide as early as practicable for this mutual freedom of trade ; but we, at the same time, assert the right of these colonies to impose such duties as each colony may think fit."

Dealing with this claim, the Conference in a series of resolutions maintained :—

" That no treaty entered into by the Imperial Government should in any way impede the exercise of this right,"

And concluded by resolving :—

" That Imperial interference with intercolonial fiscal legislation should finally and absolutely cease."

Whilst the Conference was thus firm in upholding Australian powers in this direction, there was a great want of harmony between the representatives of New South Wales and Victoria over the amount that should be paid by the latter to the former for the continuance of the right of free entry of goods into the Riverine districts of New South Wales. These goods, where not the produce of Victoria, had paid duties at the port of Melbourne and, of course, the amount collected went into the Victorian Treasury. Since 1867, Victoria, as we have seen, had

been paying £60,000 per annum to New South Wales for these collections; but in the year 1871, the Victorian delegates at the Conference considered the amount excessive; whilst those of the senior colony demanded £100,000. Both parties stood firm, so that as the Convention under which the goods passed free across the Murray was about to expire, the collection of duties along the Murray was for a time resumed; though not without efforts, in the Sydney Legislature, to prevent it. This opposition was renewed in the following year, when a Bill was passed through the Assembly whereby, on payment by Victoria of £60,000 per annum, the duties were to be again suspended; but the measure was rejected by the Legislative Council.

In the year 1873, another Intercolonial Conference sat—this time, in Sydney—to consider Lord Kimberley's reply to the recent Melbourne Conference. As, in the former case, the delegates decided to urge the Imperial Government to withdraw its claim to impose restrictions on the right of the colonies to make what fiscal arrangements they desired, as between themselves.

The Conference, moreover, adopted a resolution setting forth the desirability of establishing a uniform tariff.

During the same year Mr. Parkes made a fresh legislative attempt to remove the customs barrier along the Murray and, this time, the measure submitted was accepted by the Legislative Council, as well as by the Assembly. Thus, for another period, free trade prevailed across the Murray.

CHAPTER LXXXI

OTHER IMPORTANT EVENTS OF THE SEVENTIES

One of the most important events of the seventies was the annexation of the Fiji Islands, by which a valuable addition was made to the British dominions. This enlargement of the Empire took place in the year 1874. The function of taking over the sovereignty of the islands was performed by Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of New South Wales.

This Governor was distinguished by broad statesman-like views which, whilst they were regulated by a just regard for the limitations prescribed by the Constitution, were ably and fear-

lessly expressed. He was, in particular, seriously concerned at the slow progress of railway construction and, in expressing his views on the subject, he was enabled to materially aid the Government without giving offence to its opponents. It was, thus, largely owing to his advocacy that the construction of the extension to Albury was completed at the time it was; for there was a tendency on the part of influential men in Sydney to retard the continuation of the railways to the Victorian border. But the Governor, disdaining the narrow provincialism of this policy, lost no opportunity to put forward good reasons for the completion of the extension, and he did not disguise the fact that he was actuated by a belief that a junction of the railways of the two colonies would prove an important step in the direction of Australian Federation, of which he showed he was a strong supporter.

The railway junction he had in view was still nine years off. It did not, in fact, take place till the year 1883.

THE DEATHS OF WENTWORTH AND LANG

During the year 1872 passed away William Charles Wentworth, one of the principal authors of the Constitution of New South Wales of the year 1855, and of earlier achievements making for freedom. He had, with the exception of a short period, when he occupied the President's chair in the Legislative Council, long ceased to reside in Australia; but his part in the establishment of a free Parliament had been completed before he finally left for England. In recognition of his services, it was decided to accord his remains, which it was known would be brought to Sydney, the honour of a State funeral. This function was, at a later date, carried out amidst evidences of the respect of the whole community. The ashes of the deceased statesman were followed by all that was prominent in the social and political life of the State and were laid in a fine mausoleum, which had been erected by his family on the Wentworth estate, located in the lovely suburb of Vaucluse.

After an interval of six years, or on the 8th of August, 1878, another who had been a pillar of the State was removed by death from the midst of the people whom he had devoted much of his life to serve. Though not the equal of Wentworth as an orator, or politician, John Dunmore Lang was, in some respects, an abler man. He was, in addition to being a politician of the

front rank, a writer of no mean capacity, and in his History of New South Wales and his work advocating "Freedom and Independence for the Golden Lands of Australia," he left books that deserve to live. In these works, as well as in his political career, he took up a strongly partisan attitude that tended to arouse animosities; but even the bitterest of his opponents recognized when the hand of death was laid on his brow that a great man had gone from Israel, and none objected when the Parliament of the day resolved to accord to his remains a State funeral. Subsequently, a further honour was accorded to his memory, for a statue was erected to him in Lang Park, where it stands a permanent memorial of one who had strenuously from year to year fought in the cause of Australian liberty.

OTHER EVENTS OF THE SEVENTIES

Two years after Wentworth's death, one of the objects he had sought to achieve was attained, for during the course of the year 1874 New South Wales adopted the system of Triennial Parliaments.

An event of another kind, in the march of progress, came into existence after another period of two years, for during 1876 the work of laying a cable from La Perouse on the shores of Botany Bay to near Wellington, in New Zealand, was undertaken and completed.

By this important work that island colony was brought into telegraphic communication with Australia and through her with all the civilized world.

The year 1879 was signalized by the opening of a great International Exhibition in Sydney. This Exposition was by far the largest that had been seen in Australia up to that time. It was carried on in a fine structure known as the Garden Palace, which, in addition to a splendid display of exhibits, contained a large quantity of the early records of the colony, a number of which dealt with the convict period. The whole of these documents were, unfortunately, allowed to remain stored in the Palace after the Exhibition had closed and without regard to the danger of incendiary fires, which such records were peculiarly liable to. Thus it happened that within three years of the erection of the Palace, the building, together with nearly the whole of its contents, was totally destroyed in a disastrous fire.

CHAPTER LXXXII

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FEDERAL COUNCIL

Though the attempt made by the House of Commons in the year 1850, by the Constitutional Committee of the Legislative Council of New South Wales in 1852, by the Legislative Council of Victoria in 1857, by a memorial from Mr. Wentworth's Committee to the Colonial Secretary in 1857, and by various Intercolonial Conferences during the following decade, to establish some form of Federal authority in Australia, had all failed from one cause or another, the project was never altogether lost sight of, and in the year 1880, another attempt was made to advance in a Federal direction. This time, at a Conference of delegates from the Australian colonies, the question of constituting a Court of Appeal, to do away with the need for appeals to the Privy Council, was considered; but it was held that the time was not ripe for the establishment of such a tribunal and the matter failed to pass the stage of discussion.

During the following year, at an Australian Conference, which met in Sydney, at the instance of Sir Henry Parkes, for the purpose primarily of taking united action on the question of Chinese Immigration, which was then a matter of pressing importance, he proposed that a Federal Legislature should be established. This body was to be clothed with sufficient power to deal with alien immigration and other matters of national moment. Though this object was not attained, the delegates agreed to introduce into their respective Parliaments a drastic Chinese Immigration Restriction Bill, drawn in the same terms, and this agreement was successfully carried out and, in time, one law on this subject came into force throughout Australia.

Once more, in the year 1883, moved by the danger of foreign annexation in the Pacific, another Conference of a similar character decided that some authority should be established which could promptly voice the will of the Australasian colonies on large matters of National interest. As a result of this decision, the Draft Bill to constitute a Federal Council was adopted. It was resolved that the proposed Council should be endowed with legislative powers over a number of subjects; but as it was to be without the power to enforce its legislation, or the means to

raise a revenue, its powers were to be little more than those of an advisory body.

Sir Henry Parkes was not a member of the Conference that provided for the contemplated Council and though, in the year 1881, he had favoured a similar tentative Federalism, he displayed the strongest opposition to the work of the Conference of 1883. Nevertheless, the Draft Bill was agreed to, in the following year, by the Parliaments of Queensland, Victoria, Tasmania, and Western Australia, and later on by that of South Australia; but the New South Wales Legislature refused to accept it and this was fatal to the permanent existence of the new body; because, apart from the fact that the senior colony was the richest and most populous of the group, its position was that of the keystone State of Eastern Australia, and, from the outset, Queensland made no secret of its conviction that without New South Wales, the Council would not succeed; though under the hope that the parent colony would eventually join, the Council was duly constituted. Its first session was opened in Hobart, on the 25th of January, 1886.

Whilst some good work was done at that and the sessions of subsequent years till the closing one in 1895, the Council was all through but the germ from which, in time, a real Parliament might have evolved, even as the State Parliaments had developed from the small Nominee Legislatures of an earlier period. Its best service was to remind the Australian people of the faults of feebleness in legislative powers and of the want of a living Parliament that would effectively represent the will of the nation.

OTHER EVENTS AND FACTS OF THE EIGHTIES

The year 1881 is distinguished in Australian history as that of the first simultaneous census of the population of all of the colonies. The result showed that, at that date, there were a little over two and a quarter millions of people in the six colonies.

Perhaps the most noteworthy event of the early period of this decade was the attempted annexation of New Guinea by an officer, acting under the instructions of the Premier of Queensland, Sir Thomas McIlwraith. In this action the parent colony had but a small part and that not altogether a creditable one; for, alone of all the provinces of the group, the Government of the day declined to give the act of the northern colony any

active support with the Imperial authorities, who promptly repudiated the annexation ; though two years later, in deference to the demands of all the colonies, except New South Wales, a Protectorate was proclaimed over a portion of the great Papuan island.

In the year 1883, the colony learned that there was every probability that the country in the neighbourhood of the Barrier ranges would prove a great silver-producing district. Events quickly amply supported this opinion ; for mines that were opened up in the locality showed that there was every reason to hope that the district would prove to be one of the first of the silver-producing centres of the world and these hopes have been abundantly fulfilled. Round the mines that were worked there, the large and progressive town named Broken Hill speedily sprang into existence and, of this, the population wholly depends, directly or indirectly, on the mining operations for support.

Towards the close of the year 1885, the governorship of the colony was taken possession of by Lord Carrington, who, being of a kindly and generous nature, was well fitted for the troubles of the immediately approaching years, which were to be marked by calamities of a serious character.

Amongst these were the wreck of the large steamer, *Lyee Moon*, at Green Cape, the Bulli Colliery explosion, and the falling in of the roof of the Miumi coal mine. Each of these disasters was responsible for a great destruction of life that caused numerous bereavements. In the case of the second calamity, the extent of the mortality was so deplorable that it aroused the sympathy of people in all parts of Australia, and subscriptions of money poured in from every direction—those from Victoria being specially liberal in number and value.

This period was, in fact, particularly marked by the generous donations of philanthropists, the most noteworthy of whom was Mr. Thomas Walker of Concord, who bequeathed, besides other munificent legacies to various charities, the sum of £100,000 to found a hospital.

That Australia does not forget her great sons, after they pass from the cares of life, was once more shown by the erection, during the year 1886, of a monument to the memory of Henry Kendall, the poet, who had died on the 16th of January, 1882.

CHAPTER LXXXIII

THE SOUDAN EXPEDITION

It happened during the year 1885, that Great Britain had sent out troops to assist in suppressing a rising in the Soudan, against the Egyptian Government and to relieve General Gordon, an English officer who was besieged by the insurgents in the town of Khartoum, on the banks of the Nile. As this undertaking, on the part of the British authorities, presented considerable dangers and expense there were many in Australia who considered that Australians should assist. Amongst these, was Mr. William B. Dalley who, being Acting-Premier of the State, was in a position to give effect to his opinion, which was not, however, entirely original: for General Laurie of Canada had previously offered to serve with Canadian volunteers on the banks of the Nile.

With a view to having his desire laid before the authorities in England, Mr. Dalley induced the Governor, Lord Loftus, to telegraph to Earl Derby, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, an offer of two batteries of artillery and a regiment of infantry, ready equipped for prompt despatch to the scene of hostilities. This telegram was sent on the 12th of February, 1885, and on the 24th of the same month a reply was received accepting the offer.

The Premier of Victoria followed the lead of Mr. Dalley by offering the services of 700 infantry; whilst South Australia offered 250 more, and Queensland intimated that there were a number of men in that colony who were desirous of volunteering for service in the Soudan. The offers from the southern and northern colonies were thankfully acknowledged; but their Premiers were informed that the troops would not be required and that the New South Wales offer had only been accepted because it had been intimated that the contingent offered by that State was ready for prompt departure, which it really was not.

When the acceptance of the offer of New South Wales troops was known great interest was shown throughout the State in the preparations for the despatch of the contingent and a large sum of money was contributed for the support of such men as

might be wounded and for the maintenance of the families of those who might be fatally injured. Moreover, large quantities of stores were given by leading merchants.

Still, there was a considerable section of the people that disapproved of the proposed expedition; because, at this period, there was a strong sentiment opposed to what was termed Imperialism, and the proposed expedition was held to be a departure from the principles of Australian Nationalism and calculated to embroil the colonies in a foreign enterprise in no way connected with their own defence. Amongst those who held opinions of this tendency, the most prominent was Sir Henry Parkes, who denounced the project in unsparing terms. He held that: —

"There can be no greater folly than to foster a spurious spirit of military ardour in a country where every man is required to take part in some form or other of colonizing work. With the right hand we are expending our revenues to import able-bodied men to subjugate the soil; with the left we squander our revenues to deport them. All the misty talk about heroic federation will dissipate itself in the clear atmosphere of time and reason. Six months hence, the colony will be ashamed of what is now being done. If the time should unhappily come when England shall be engaged in a conflict with a great power our first duty will be to hold inviolate the part of the Empire where our lot is cast and, this sacred trust secured, to give life and fortune, if we have them to spare, beyond our shores."

Sir Henry determined that he would offer himself as a candidate for Parliament, "As the most conspicuous opponent of the Government in respect to the Soudan, without regard to any other circumstance."

It happened that, at this time, there was a vacancy in the electorate of Argyle, a district in which he had, he said, no connections and where he felt there was a strong sectarian bias against him over his education policy and kindred matters. This constituency he decided to stand for on the one issue of the moment. The result was, after a stubborn fight, that the electors returned him by a majority of fifty votes, and in his commentary on the matter he claimed that—"From this time the sickly enthusiasm over the 'brilliant inspiration of genius' paled away and, nowadays, no one thinks of saying a word to excuse the Soudan expedition."

The existence of a feeling of discontent with the policy of

the Government, of which these and other comments were ample evidence, was officially referred to in a despatch from Lord Loftus to the Earl of Derby, wherein the Governor stated :—

"At the first announcement, some disapproval of the offer of the Government was evinced by the Press, on the ground that it was unconstitutional and ought not to have been made without the previous sanction of Parliament, and, secondly, that political circumstances having much altered since its departure, it was considered that the services of the contingent were required for the defence of the colony. A considerable change has taken place in public opinion and the act of the Government meets with more general approval."

The change here referred to, by the Governor, may not have been very evident at the time; but there is no doubt that, in after years, the sentiment of opposition to the policy of aiding the mother country in her wars, diminished and gave place to one favouring active co-operation, as was to be abundantly proved by subsequent events.

CHAPTER LXXXIV

THE NAVAL DEFENCES BILL OF 1887 AND AUSTRALIAN NATIONALISM

During the month of April, 1886, a Conference of delegates from all the Australasian colonies was held for the purpose of deciding, among other matters, on a scheme of Naval Defence. It was proposed that the colonies represented should provide a fund for the maintenance of a squadron of seven ships which were to be stationed in Australasian waters and were to be, as the Conference Draft Bill thus prescribed :—

"Under the sole control of the Naval Commander-in-Chief, appointed to command Her Majesty's ships on the Australian station. The vessels shall be retained within the limits of the Australian station, in times of peace or war, or employed beyond those limits only with the consent of the Colonial Government."

Though this scheme was mandatory that the squadron should remain in Australian waters in peace and war—unless specially

allowed by the contracting colonies to depart—and was, moreover, to be under the control of a locally stationed admiral and not of the Admiralty, there were many who doubted whether the safety or unity of the colonies would be promoted by a scheme which they considered aimed at taxing the contracting States for the maintenance of a fleet which would be under the orders of an officer in no way controlled by the Australian Parliaments. Others, however, considered the scheme a good bargain, and in that opinion all the Legislatures, except that of Queensland, concurred during the year 1887; though, in New South Wales, the Bill embodying the arrangement was strenuously opposed by a minority that claimed to represent Australian sentiment and which when defeated on the final division on the Bill called for "Three cheers for Australia," meaning, thereby, that the cause of Australia, though beaten that day, would yet arise again. Their opponents foolishly responded to their cry by calling for "Three cheers for Old England," which had the effect of making it appear as though the Bill was more in the interests of Great Britain than in those of Australia; though it provided a plan which, in the important matter of control, was more Australian in character than some of the proposals of a later date. In the latter schemes it was insisted that the control of the ships should be vested in the Admiralty, which was to have power on the outbreak of war to remove them from the seas they were supposed to guard, and thus it was contended by the critics of the time that Australia, after maintaining her fleet in time of peace, when its services were small, might find that it had been ordered away, just when its protection would be vitally important.

Queensland soon fell into line with the other colonies in accepting the Bill of the Conference of 1886, which had since become known as the Naval Subsidy Agreement; but by its opponents as the Naval Tribute Bill; for at this time, before it and after it for a number of years, there was, as we have seen, a strong anti-Imperialist movement in Australia. This was evidenced not only in the Press, which freely published articles of a Republican tendency; but also in Parliament and at public meetings.

At one of the assemblages held in the Sydney Town Hall speeches of a pronounced revolutionary character were loudly applauded, and by some of the more violent of the crowd present

the Union Jack was torn down. As a counter-blast to this rebellious gathering, an immense meeting was held in the Exhibition building, at which the Mayor, the Governor, and Lady Carrington were present; but though every precaution had been taken to provide that a large body of loyal citizens should be present, it was disputed, at the time, whether a resolution embodying a simple address of loyalty to the Queen, such as in after years would have been instantly and enthusiastically carried, was really supported by a majority. Other tokens of the widespread feeling of anti-Imperialism were the number of candidates returned to Parliament who were known to be avowed Republicans. One of these was the leader of the Protectionist party and for some years Premier of the State. Another of them, on his elevation to the Assembly, publicly refused, at first, to take the oath of allegiance to the Throne.

In Queensland a similar feeling widely prevailed, and there the action of Sir Thomas McIlwraith in the annexation of New Guinea and the seizure by his police agents of the gunboat *Gayundah*, together with his reported threat to arrest the commanding officer of the ship, on his own quarter-deck and, if necessary to turn the guns of the forts on the vessel, if she tried to leave the river, were plain evidences of a serious tendency.

Of such, also, was the attitude of Sir Henry Parkes, in New South Wales, towards the Imperial Government, when he prevented, by executive action and without any legal authority, the landing of several ship-loads of Chinamen and declared that, "Neither for Her Majesty's ships of war, nor for Her Majesty's representative on the spot, nor for the Secretary of State for the Colonies, do we intend to turn aside from our purpose, which is to prevent the landing of Chinamen on these shores for ever; and, so far as I am concerned, I cast to the winds your permits of exemption. I care nothing for your cobweb of technical law. I am obeying a law far superior to any law which issues these permits, namely, the law of the preservation of our society."

The whole of the movement of which these remarks and the collateral facts were evidences, was eventually killed in Australia by the advent of a widespread Socialistic propaganda; for, in the presence of that portent (a portent whose after-results were by no means alarming), all who considered they had anything to lose, and these comprised nearly all the business sup-

porters of the newspapers, decided to unite together to oppose the advancing wave of what they considered was a war on property and the employers of labour. Though the components of this powerful federation of employers had previously held widely different opinions on national politics, with one accord the radical members agreed to abandon every political idea, save that of opposing the rapid progress of the Socialist movement ; but, whilst they took that course, the Imperialists in the new political association did not deviate for a moment from their ideas in favour of Imperial unity and opposed to Australian Nationalism, and as they, under the new order of things, were enabled to obtain the support of the Press, a pro-Empire crusade, concurrent with a war on the Labour Party, was vigorously begun and has been successfully continued to the present day. On the other hand, their opponents who had till this period been largely Republican in tendency, were everywhere successfully taught by the Socialist orators and writers that the question of the form of government was a matter of small importance and that things were better with the masses in Monarchical Britain than they were in Republican America. Through the result of this teaching, the workers, as the Labourites called themselves, no longer concerned themselves with Australian Nationalism, but devoted their attention purely to establishing, through political action, better industrial conditions for themselves ; and as, in the meantime, the writers and speakers on the side of Capital lost no opportunity to press the idea that the colonies were helpless without Great Britain, that the mother country was a great and good friend, and that Australia could never do enough to show her gratitude to such a parent, the result began to be seen in a gradual relegation of all ideas of Australian Independence to a distant, vague, and indefinite future ; whilst the children in the schools were trained to ideas of love and reverence for the Flag and of loyalty to the Empire ; and thus, it came to pass, that opinions that seemed likely in the period that preceded and followed the Centennial year to lead to the establishment of an Independent Nation on the Australian continent, grew to be out of date and, finally, gradually perished, except in the recesses of the hearts of a few enthusiasts who, being denied the opportunity to advocate their ideas, became helpless and silent.

CHAPTER LXXXV

THE JUBILEE AND CENTENNIAL CELEBRATIONS

THE year 1887 was the Jubilee, or fiftieth anniversary of Queen Victoria's accession to the throne. This date was celebrated in Sydney by public holidays on the 20th and 21st of June. The festivities, connected with the holidays, embraced an illumination of the city which attracted immense crowds of people, not only from the metropolitan area, but from the country districts.

But greater festivities and greater crowds of rejoicing spectators were seen at the celebrations which took place in the month of January of the ensuing year, when the centenary of the founding of British settlement in Australia took place.

A noteworthy feature of the time was that the old title of "Colonists" which had been a common term used by the people of Australia, when referring to themselves, was generally abandoned and the title of "Australians" was as universally adopted; whilst, from that period, the term "Colonials" usually applied by persons in and fresh from Great Britain, when alluding to Australians, began to be resented; for, as a matter of fact, the vast bulk of the people of Australia were, at this time, not colonists—that is to say persons who enter and colonize a country. They were natives of the soil and were beginning to be proud of the fact and to consider themselves as a young nation which had interests and hopes of its own. They felt that a great epoch had arrived in the history of their nationality and that the commemoration of the Centennial year of the existence of the Anglo-Saxon race in Australia was a matter that should be worthily carried out. Their politicians were, however, much divided in opinion as to the form the celebrations should take. Among a section of them, and by many of the people, it was thought that an International Exhibition should be the leading feature; but there were so many disputes over the matter that, finally, it seemed that the Centennial epoch was likely to pass without any commemoration worthy of the occasion. At this stage, the Victorian Government, which had been waiting for New South Wales to act, announced that, if no Exhibition was to be held in Sydney, one would be arranged for in Melbourne, and, forthwith, steps were taken by the Parlia-

ment of the southern colony to prepare for one, on such a scale as would accord with the centenary of the historical event of 1788.

Moved, then, by a feeling of shame, lest the daughter colony should alone have the honour of celebrating the anniversary of an event which it was the duty of the mother State to take the leading part in commemorating, all parties—even those who had been cavilling at every suggestion of the Government, mainly because it was the Government and, particularly, because it was that of Sir Henry Parkes, ceased disputing and authorized the Ministry to take what steps it thought fit to devise an appropriate celebration. Practically the whole matter of doing this was committed into the hands of Sir Henry Parkes; but, when his scheme was launched, it was found that a central feature of it was the establishment of a State House, which was to be an Australian Pantheon, or Westminster Abbey, in which should rest the remains of the great men, not merely of the State, but of all Australia, who, having served their country during their lives, were allowed after death to receive the honour of a National sepulture in the Pantheon at Sydney. This idea, which had much to commend it, did not meet with the approval of a considerable portion of the people and the strength of the opposition caused the Premier to lay it aside; but, another part of the same scheme, which was the formation of a great National Park, was unanimously approved and preparations were at once set on foot to lay out the grounds. The situation of this park is a splendid one on the elevated but gently sloping lands lying between several of the eastern suburbs. In an astonishingly short time, for the labour involved, what had been a scrub-covered and sandy water-catchment area, was turned into a noble and well laid out park, and, on the 26th of January, 1888, just one hundred years from the landing of Phillip with the first colonists, this great national recreation ground was opened in the presence of the vice-regal families of all the Australasian States, by Lord Carrington, the Governor of the inviting State, and in the midst of a vast multitude of the citizens of Sydney and of visitors from every part of Australia. In honour of the event it commemorated, it was called Centennial Park. In addition to forming a noble memento of a national date in Australian history, it serves as a lasting memorial of the great statesman whose policy provided it.

Whilst the Centennial Park was to serve as the permanent souvenir of the completion of the first century of Australian settlement, Sir Henry Parkes provided for other ceremonials, such as a great State banquet to the representative men of all Australia and for an illumination of the public buildings. In the latter undertaking the central metropolitan municipal council and nearly all the leading business proprietors of the city heartily co-operated, and thus the illuminations became of an extensive and beautiful character. In addition to these—the features of the occasion—there were other interesting ceremonial functions, the principal of which was the unveiling of a fine statue of Queen Victoria. Taken as a whole, the commemoration was worthily carried out and, what was far more important, it served greatly, by the sentiment that permeated all the relative speeches and the articles in the newspapers, to prepare the minds of the people for the coming of another epoch when the people of Australia would be politically one nation, as they had been one in blood, manners, and customs, in spite of laws and restrictions on trade, specially designed to keep them apart.

CHAPTER LXXXVI

NATIONAL RAILWAY JUNCTIONS AND AMENDMENTS OF THE N.S.W. CONSTITUTION

Apart from the Centennial celebrations in New South Wales and Victoria, the year 1888 was signalized by an event of national importance, in the junction of the railways of Queensland and New South Wales, and this was followed in the succeeding year by the establishment of through communication between Brisbane and Adelaide through the junction of the railways at Murray Bridge of the systems of Victoria and South Australia.

In the year 1893, the New South Wales Constitution was amended by the abolition of plural voting and the introduction of the system known as "One Man, One Vote," and it was further amended during the year 1902 by the establishment of Adult Suffrage.

CHAPTER LXXXVII

POPULATION, PRODUCTION, CLIMATE, AND SENTIMENT

With upwards of one and three-quarters of a million people, New South Wales stands easily first in Australia's population, the next to her being Victoria with a little more than one and one-third of a million of inhabitants.

The State stands also first in the amount of its wealth and production. Its people grow nearly one-third of all the wheat of the continent and nearly one-half of the maize; though, it is probable that Queensland will, before long, take the leading position in the latter cereal. In general farm production the position is not by any means as good; for in various lines, Victoria, Queensland, or South Australia, leads. Still the State has a very respectable amount of general farm produce, and with great areas of good land, still unused, and a fair rainfall, it cannot be doubted but that, in time, better all-round agricultural results will be shown.

In pastoral production, the State is by far the greatest sheep-owner in the Commonwealth, possessing, as it does, nearly forty millions of that stock, or not far short of one-half of all in Australia, and naturally the wool crop is similarly proportioned.

In mining the State takes a great position, though not the leading one, except in silver and coal, in which the output, in each case, is higher than that of all the rest of Australia. In silver, in particular, the State's production is about seven-eighths of that of the continent's total; whilst, in coal, it is about five-sixths, the only other State with a considerable output being Queensland, with about one-tenth of the tonnage of the senior State.

On account of the existence of very extensive tracts of well-elevated country within the State, the temperature varies, perhaps, more than in most of the States, according to position; but, generally, the climate is mild and temperate and well suited to health and production.

It is a pleasing task in concluding the special record of New South Wales to be able to state that for several years past the anti-Australian, and purely selfish spirit, in which all questions affecting the general interests of the Australian people were

approached by a considerable section of the inhabitants of the senior State has almost wholly died and, at the present time, the citizens of this section of Australia are steadily advancing to the position of being the most prominent in taking a national view of public questions. This is a vast change from that which was noticeable—not so long since—when it was considered, in Sydney, that anyone who was a good Australian must be more or less a " Victorian " at heart.

PART I—SECTION 2

TASMANIA

CHAPTER I

ITS EXTENT, POSITION, AND FIRST VISITORS

THE island known since the early years of the second half of the nineteenth century as Tasmania, but which was previously called Van Diemen's Land, contains—roughly in the shape of a flattened heart—an area of 26,215 square miles and is, therefore, greatly the smallest of the political sections of Australia. It lies about 120 miles from the eastern end of the southern coast of Australia, from which it was only divided at a comparatively recent period in its geological history by the wide channel, known as Bass Straits, and with which it remains connected, beneath the surface of the sea, by a range of submerged mountains. It is, in fact, justly considered to belong to Australia geographically and geologically, and these strong natural affinities are supplemented by close political and commercial relations, and though for a time the political connection was broken with advantage to the island, it was, in the process of time, to be replaced by one of a permanent and wholly beneficent character.

As previously stated, the island was discovered in the year 1642 by Abel Jansz Tasman, whose name is perpetuated not only in that of the island, but also in several other designations, such as Tasman's Peninsula, Tasman's Head, and Tasman's Island.

After the departure of its discoverer, it remained unvisited by Europeans for one hundred and thirty years, when Captain Marion du Fresne, who had been sent out by France on an exploring expedition in the South Pacific, sighted the island on the 3rd of March, 1772, and, on the following day, entered the inlet which Tasman had called Prince Frederick Henry's Bay.

In one respect Marion was more fortunate than the great Dutch navigator, for, whereas Tasman had only beheld appearances to show that the country was inhabited, the French captain saw numbers of the natives with whom, though with little success, he tried to communicate. With that object in view he sent a party of his men on shore, and when these had landed they were met by the blacks, one of whom handed two lighted sticks to a sailor and seemed to wish him to ignite with them a pile of wood. Taking this to be a peaceful ceremony, the Frenchman set fire to the wood and then he and his companions endeavoured to cultivate the friendship of the natives by offers of some of those presents that are usually most prized by savages; but all these were rejected with contempt. The sailors then showed the aboriginals some fowls and pigs and other domestic animals; but the sight of these seemed to anger them.

Whilst events were in this position, Marion, himself, landed, and to him the natives also offered lighted sticks and a pile of wood; but no sooner had the captain set fire to the pile than the savages ran to a neighbouring hill and from there assailed him and his men with a shower of stones. By some of these Marion and several of his men were injured. They all, therefore, retired to their boats and pulled to a place on the shore where the savages could not approach without crossing an open space; but in spite of this they did not hesitate to advance towards the Frenchmen, at whom they threw their spears. In consequence of this, Marion ordered his men to fire, whereupon the savages retired, howling, into the bush and bearing away some of their party who were hurt and leaving one of their number on the ground wounded to death. Though the French remained several days after this event in the bay, they saw no more of the natives, and being unable to procure either water or fresh provisions of any kind in the place they followed the example of Tasman and set sail for New Zealand.

A little more than a year after Marion's departure Captain Furneaux, the commander of one of the vessels that had formed the squadron, with which Captain Cook had set out on his second voyage of discovery, having become separated from his chief during stormy weather, came across the eastern coast of Tasmania and sailed along its entire extent, as well as along the southern coast to Adventure Bay, which he called after the name of his vessel. He, after some stay in the inlet, set sail for New Zealand

with the intent to rejoin his chief, Cook having given him a rendezvous there.

Cook, himself, on his third voyage, visited the island. He anchored in Adventure Bay, and by good management and, perhaps, by good fortune in meeting with a peaceable tribe, succeeded in establishing friendly relations with the natives.

Fifteen years after Furneaux's departure, Admiral D'Entrecasteaux who, in command of the ships *Recherché* and *Espérance*, had been despatched from France in search of the ill-fated navigator, La Pérouse, arrived off the coast of the island. He sailed into the wide inlet that is called Storm Bay; but finding that it was too much exposed to afford secure anchorage to his ships, he sought for a more sheltered haven, which he thought he had found in a narrow arm of the sea that ran southward from Storm Bay. This the Admiral at first thought was a branch of that bay; but he soon discovered that it was a channel running between the Tasmanian coast and a long narrow island close to it. This passage of water he called after himself, D'Entrecasteaux Channel. Into it a fine stream was found to flow, and this received the name of the Huon River, in honour of Captain Huon of the *Espérance*. Later on, when D'Entrecasteaux made further explorations in the neighbourhood of Storm Bay, he discovered the fine stream that is now called the Derwent, though it was named by him La Rivière du Nord, or the North River. Whilst his vessels were on this river, a party of his men ascended to the summit of the mountain that now overlooks the city of Hobart and which, long after his visit, was to receive the name of Mount Wellington.

When D'Entrecasteaux's vessels left Van Diemen's Land three sides of the island had been seen and partly explored; but none of the navigators who had visited the country had beheld the north coast, and each one of them had departed in the belief that he had but visited a part of the mainland of Australia. It was reserved for an Englishman to prove by a visit to the north coast that the land discovered by Tasman was separated by a wide channel from continental Australia. This discoverer was Mr. Bass. Towards the end of the year 1798, he, in company with Lieutenant Flinders, penetrated behind the Furneaux group of islands which stand some distance off the eastern end of the north coast of the island and thence coasted along the shore till he came to an inlet that he named Port Dalrymple. From there

he sailed westward till he came to where the coast turns due south and thus conclusively proved that Van Diemen's Land was an island. He and his companion continued their voyage down the west coast and round to Storm Bay, from where they ascended the Derwent River as far as the site of the present city of Hobart.

CHAPTER II

THE COLONIZATION OF THE ISLAND

Lieutenant Flinders published an account of the interesting voyage that Bass and he had made to the island in which the character of the country at the head of Port Dalrymple and, especially, that on the banks of the Derwent River, was so favourably described that when, in the year 1803, it was decided to abandon the penal settlement at Norfolk Island, the Governor at Sydney had no hesitation in resolving that the inhabitants of the island, both bond and free, could be suitably settled in Van Diemen's Land. Accordingly, in the middle of the year, Lieutenant Bowen, in charge of a small party of convicts and soldiers, was despatched to the banks of the Derwent to make the necessary preparations for the establishment there of an important penal settlement. Bowen ascended the river as far as a place that became known as Risdon or Restdown. There he landed his people and commenced to make preparations for permanently settling on the spot; but he had not been more than a few months in charge when Lieutenant-Colonel Collins arrived during the year 1804 in the Derwent with the community that he had ineffectually attempted to settle on the shores of Port Phillip, and by right of rank assumed command over Bowen's men. These, with the people on his vessels, he removed to Sullivan's Cove, a place on the western bank of the river, and there, on the 30th of January, 1804, he landed. The locality was found to be well adapted for the site of a settlement and so Collins decided to permanently establish his people on the spot and to call the town—the first structures of which he built—Hobart, in honour of the Secretary of State by whom his colonizing expedition had been despatched from England.

About the time that the colony at Hobart was being founded,

Colonel Paterson, in command of a small body of troops and convicts, arrived at Port Dalrymple on the northern side of the island to form there another settlement. At first he established his people near the mouth of the Tamar River, but, later on, he decided to remove the settlement to a more suitable spot about thirty miles up the stream. The settlement he there founded, he called Launceston. To it a considerable number of the Norfolk Island convicts were removed between the years 1803 and 1805; but the free settlers from that island were for the most part removed to a pleasant locality on the banks of the Derwent, not far from Hobart. As most of these people had very unwillingly left their Pacific Isle, they did not readily forget it and in memory of their old home they called their new settlement New Norfolk. But, as they became used to their environment there, they grew reconciled to the change, and this the more readily because many of them had served in the Marines under Colonel Collins, the Lieutenant-Governor, and had learned to love and respect him. These sentiments soon became general amongst the Van Diemen's Land settlers; for Colonel Collins was of a kindly, though firm disposition, and in the history of the island he holds much the same position that Captain Phillip does in the annals of the mainland. He died in the little town he had built up on the Derwent in the year 1810, after having ruled successfully during the six years of his governorship.

CHAPTER III

THE EARLY TROUBLES

It might have been anticipated that the presence of the Norfolk Island settlers would soon have put the colony in the way to produce all the food it required; but this was far from being the case. Though amidst the abundant fertility and copious rainfalls of the island whence they were removed these settlers had early obtained considerable crops with very little effort, this had not fitted them for the more strenuous exertions required in their new country; whilst a tendency to laxity in other respects and to rely too much on the assistance of the Government stores, were more often noticeable amongst the majority

of them than attention to the work of their farms. For these reasons, the hopes that had been founded on their arrival were disappointed, whilst other settlers who had come out from Great Britain were able to produce comparatively little for the urgent requirements of the colony, owing to the inefficiency of their convict labourers. Moreover, those of them who might, despite the want of proper assistance, have been substantial producers of the much-needed food, were seriously interrupted by the blacks, who were bitterly hostile to the presence of the whites and ceaselessly active in their depredations and attacks. Thus it happened that there was no reliance to be placed on the island farmers for the food of the settlement, and supplies from the parent colony were not obtainable; for New South Wales was, at the time, unable to supply her own requirements. Famine was only precariously averted at this juncture by supplies of kangaroo meat, obtained by convict hunters, who frequently used the leave that it was necessary to give them for their hunting expeditions to escape, and as all who thus fled had no other resource for food than the homes of the farmers, they became another and even worse menace to the settlers in the bush than the blacks.

Whilst this was the early record of settlement under the control of Hobart, the little colony which Colonel Paterson had founded on the Tamar River was affected by similar troubles with the blacks and bushrangers; but in one respect progress was attained, for a road from Launceston was made through the centre of the island to Hobart. The completion of this work paved the way in the year 1810 for the union of the two hitherto distinct settlements. This was effected by the Governor-in-Chief, Macquarie, who, visiting the island on one of his tours of inspection, decided to have but one representative of his authority there and that this officer should be stationed at Hobart.

CHAPTER IV

COLONEL DAVEY

Colonel Davey, an officer of Marines, was the first Lieutenant-Governor under the new arrangement. He landed from his ship, without a coat and, in that free-and-easy style, called at

the first public-house for liquor and, in a manner consistent with his original appearance in his capital, conducted himself during the four years of his governorship. His ideas generally of ruling were those he derived from his naval career, and whilst he endeavoured to carry the discipline of a man-of-war into the governing of the colony, he set an example of freedom from the restraints of temperance in living such as would not have been tolerated in the case of his successors, when the public opinion of an increasing free population had begun to operate. But, though his personal conduct and his man-of-war system of government were open to criticism, he endeavoured to fairly decide in all matters that came before him. He gave to the farmers encouragement and hope that had previously been wanting, and as a result of this and an increase in the number of labourers suitable for farm work, there was by the year 1816 such an addition to the productions of the land, that at that period the settlers not only met all the requirements of the island for wheat, but were able to despatch a considerable portion of their crop for the needs of the parent settlement at Sydney. Davey encouraged, also, the trade of the island by removing the restrictions that had been put, for convict reasons, on the entrance into the Derwent of trading vessels, and as a result of this freedom, the port of Hobart, in no long time, became a resort of numbers of mercantile and whaling craft.

CHAPTER V

THE BUSHRANGING CONVICTS

Far worse at this time than the depredations of the aboriginals were those committed by escaped convicts. All these and many others of the island prisoners were what the French long afterwards in New Caledonia called *recédevistes*, that is to say criminals who added to the crimes for which they had been transported, offences committed during their penal servitude. Those sent to Van Diemen's Land were generally of a more brutal type than those despatched to New South Wales and their education in crimes of the lowest and most debasing character was completed in the island. The most infamous of

these scoundrels were confined on one of the peninsulas that enclose Macquarie Harbour, which is located on the western side of the island. From this penitentiary escape was rare and very difficult, but other convicts, nearly as vile as the denizens of the cells of Macquarie Harbour, found means to escape from their enforced tasks in localities where the circumstances did not permit of such security as was afforded on the peninsula. Once away in the bush, the escapees could only subsist by robbery of the settlers. So serious were their predatory incursions that the Lieutenant-Governor decided to place the whole of the island under martial law; but Governor Macquarie, when the matter was referred to him, refused to endorse the act of his lieutenant, whereupon Davey resigned.

His successor, Colonel Sorrell, who replaced him in the year 1817, adopted a less drastic, but effective policy. By the subscriptions of the colonists, he was enabled to offer a substantial reward for the capture of the leading outlaws; whilst the guards in charge of the chain-gangs were ordered to closely watch their prisoners to prevent any communication between them and strangers, lest information of the movements of the police and military, that were known to the convicts, might be conveyed to the bushrangers; whilst, at the same time, the forces of the law were urged to a ceaseless pursuit of the outlaws, in which they began to be effectively aided by secret information from accomplices who hoped in return for betraying their confederates to obtain, at the least, a mitigation of their own penalties when they should themselves happen to be captured. By these measures the country districts were in a short time cleared of the most dangerous offenders, and security having been thus established, the number of farmers greatly increased; new country was taken up; the area under crop rapidly increased; whilst the introduction from New South Wales of some choice merino sheep from Mr. Macarthur's Camden property soon caused such an improvement in the breed of the island flocks, that then began the wide repute which Tasmanian wool has deservedly obtained.

Thus, when the Governor-General visited the island, during the year 1821, he found it in a very satisfactory state of progress.

As was usual with him in New South Wales, Macquarie gave his name to a large number of places in the island. He also took steps to have Hobart town laid out in a more regular

manner than on the lines on which it was being built. His work in this direction is commemorated by the names he gave to several of the streets.

CHAPTER VI

SEPARATION FROM NEW SOUTH WALES

Colonel Sorrell was replaced in the year 1824 by Mr. George Arthur, who had, prior to his appointment to Van Diemen's Land, been Governor of British Honduras and was to prove himself in his new sphere what he had been known to be in his earlier career, namely, a man of energy and determination. His position in the island was much more important than that held by his predecessor, seeing that an Act of the Imperial Parliament, passed the year after his arrival, practically severed Van Diemen's Land from the control of the Governor of New South Wales and made its ruler, though still styled Lieutenant-Governor, together with the Legislative Council that was to assist him, responsible alone to the Imperial Government, and this, though the ruler of the mainland still preserved a nominal jurisdiction over the island as Governor-in-Chief.

When Governor Arthur entered on his duties the population of the colony only amounted to 12,000 souls. He acted with little regard to the rules and regulations laid down for the guidance of his predecessors by the authorities in England. Thus, knowing that an Imperial law prescribing that all public lands were to be sold at a minimum price of five shillings an acre and were not to be given away, was to come into force, he freely distributed grants of land, wherever he thought fit, almost up to the day when the regulations, under the new Act, were proclaimed.

Through the good reports of it sent to his chiefs by Governor Macquarie, the island had attracted a considerable number of free immigrants; but Arthur looked coldly on these arrivals, holding that the colony was specially reserved for convicts. He had consequently, throughout his term, to contend with the opposition of the new settlers. He, however, rendered them, as well as the remainder of the decent section of the community, a great service by the firm manner in which he controlled the

criminals of the island. His policy was to relentlessly hunt down every escaped prisoner, and recently numbers of the convicts had got away into the bush. Whilst thus making capture and the punishment of crime a reasonable certainty, he sought to encourage the efforts of prisoners who showed a desire to reform. He abolished the Macquarie Harbour penal settlement, widely notorious as a scene of infamy and official brutality, because of the time and expense involved in conveying the prisoners from Hobart there, and, in its place, established one at an inlet on Tasman Peninsula, which was called after him, Port Arthur. This peninsula is so nearly an island that only a narrow strip of land, about eighty yards wide, connects it with the mainland of the colony. On this neck, such obstacles were provided as made it practically impossible to escape in that direction; whilst the distance to the mainland shore, further on, on the peninsula, and the fact that the sea between was infested by sharks, rendered any attempt at evasion by swimming almost certain to result in a fatal end. Finally, no boat was allowed to remain near the peninsula except under close and constant supervision. Thus, escape from Port Arthur was rendered so difficult as to be considered impossible. The character of the new penal settlement soon rivalled the deplorable reputation of the one it replaced as the receptacle of the most abandoned criminals of the island. These convicts were ruled on the peninsula with a rod of iron; but, nevertheless, even to the wretches of this dreadful abode, hope was not altogether denied; for a persistency in good conduct would probably result in the transference of the penitent to the service of some employer, who, it might reasonably be hoped, would feel disposed to act fairly to a servant who attended to his duties with zeal and energy. Convicts who were not qualified by repeated offences for the rigours of Port Arthur were formed into gangs, which, toiling in irons, constructed and maintained the public roads; whilst others who were less criminally tainted were assigned, as they arrived from England, to settlers who required labourers. The lot of these was enviable compared with that of those sentenced to the chain-gangs, or to the more dreaded penalty of confinement at Port Arthur.

CHAPTER VII

THE BLACK DRIVE

Though the stern measures of the Governor to put down the recently escaped bushrangers were effectual, he was by no means as successful, for a long time, in subduing or controlling the blacks. He found, on his arrival, that a war of extermination was being waged against them and that they, as opportunity served, retaliated indiscriminately on the whites. From the outset these aboriginals had proved more distrustful and opposed to the invaders of their country than the natives of the mainland, and whilst no part of Australia was free from troubles with the tribes, which were often the result of ignorance of their customs, of the destruction of the wild animals on which they subsisted, or of the gross interference with their women; yet the outrages that ensued were neither so persistent nor so serious as those committed by the blacks of Van Diemen's Land. There, the wrongs suffered from the settlers and the brutal outrages they endured at the hands of escaped criminals whom nature, and the infamous teachings and practices of the chain-gangs, had made more ferociously vile than the worst of savages, had rendered the natives inveterately hostile and impelled them to merciless attacks, which the whites subsequently revenged by relentless massacres. Thus it had come to pass that even with the better class of settlers, the destruction of the tribesmen was generally accounted to be desirable and meritorious. This state of affairs was condemned by the Governors, and one of them had recently proclaimed that the death of an aboriginal would be as seriously punished as that of a white man; but to proclaim this and to carry it into effect were different things; for, on the one hand, the blacks were too shy and ignorant to seek the protection of the Governor, and on the other, the whites, in the dark recesses of the bush, paid little attention to the warnings of the proclamation and continued to pursue the natives as though they were noxious animals, fit only for pitiless destruction. Rendered desperate by this treatment, the aboriginals had recently retaliated with more than ordinary ferocity, and the reports of this compelled, during the year 1830, the Governor to take action against them; for he held that whatever might have been the

wrongs suffered by the tribes, his first duty was to see that the whites were effectually protected. To ensure that and to make the protection permanent in character, he considered that the blacks must be removed from their bush fastnesses and from contact with the settlers. To effect that, he sought to have them driven into a portion of the island where they could, with little difficulty, be retained, and Forestier's Peninsula was the locality he decided on. With that purpose in view, he summoned nearly the whole of the able-bodied men of the colony and instructed them to form a cordon from St. Patrick's Head, on the east coast, to the western side of the Great Lake and thence southerly to Lake Echo. South and east of this almost right angle, it was known that the great bulk of the aboriginals were located. The units forming the line were commanded to advance in a south and south-east direction towards Forestier's Peninsula, driving, it was hoped, the blacks in front of them. So that none of these should slip through the cordon of beaters it was ordered that each one of the driving force should be sufficiently close to the man on the right and left of him to be able to prevent escape through the line. In time the beaters drew in towards the neck of the peninsula ; but it had been noticed for some time, as they approached their destination, that there were no signs of natives in front, and when an investigation was made, it was found that, saving an old man and a boy, there were actually none of the aboriginals in front and that thus the miserable result of an undertaking which had cost the colony directly or indirectly nearly £60,000 was the capture of but two blacks. The fact was that, though of a low type of humanity, the natives were not devoid of human reason and had used their intelligence to slip between the beaters when darkness and the rugged character of the country permitted this to be done.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FATE OF THE BLACKS

As might be expected, the Governor was seriously concerned at the failure of his scheme, but he did not abandon hopes of effecting in another way his purpose of placing the blacks where

they would be under restraint. Having failed by force, he resolved to resort to milder methods. With that purpose in view, he engaged as his agents Messrs. John Batman and J. A. Robinson. Batman, who subsequently became known to fame as a pioneer of settlement on the shores of Port Phillip, was one of the few settlers who had tried and with some success to live on amicable terms with the natives; whilst Robinson was favourably regarded by them through his connection with a refuge, or reservation for aboriginals, that he had established on Bruni Island. These two men were instructed by the Governor to go amongst the tribes and endeavour to persuade them to come into Hobart to meet him. Batman, though he had, on at least one occasion, to resort to fatal violence, was partly successful in his mission; whilst Robinson who went unarmed and relied wholly on moral force and the good-will of the blacks; or at least on their recognition of his peaceful character, was wholly so. Between them, the two agents of the Governor eventually succeeded in persuading the whole of the blacks to leave the bush and go to Hobart. Unfortunately, owing to the bitter feeling that had been engendered, the colonists considered that no part of the mainland of the colony afforded a secure place of confinement for the hated race, and they possessed the Governor with this idea. Thus, he could find no better reward for the trust of the natives in his justice and mercy than to have the whole of them shipped away to Flinders Island, which though fertile is a wind-swept mountainous place, in the eastern portion of Bass Straits. The number of the natives who were condemned to this dreary exile was found to be greatly less than what had been expected, whilst they were yet free; for there were little more than two hundred of them all told, and of these twenty-six comprised the total strength of the most dreaded tribe. Yet this was in the year 1831, just twenty-eight years after the landing of the first settlers. To the exiled blacks, the Flinders Island reservation proved a hopeless refuge, for, forced into a new and strange life, they suffered from the compulsory wearing of unaccustomed clothes, which wet or dry, or night or day, were never changed. Subject, too, to the incessant outrages of the sealers and other frequenters of the straits, who were mostly freed or escaped convicts, and pining for their native land, they died away so rapidly that within three years more than half of them perished, and when, in the year 1847, the poor remnant of

them that still existed was removed to Oyster Bay on the eastern coast of the colony, they then numbered but forty-four. In their new location, they received but scant attention or protection from the Government, and this being observed by the ex-convicts who frequented the bay, they repeated with impunity the outrages that the unfortunate blacks had formerly endured from men of a like character in the Straits. Corrupting their victims with drink and excessive debauchery, these men rendered them morally and physically impotent. Thus, the sad story of decline and death that had been the lot of the natives in all the years since they encountered the first settlers and, more particularly since they surrendered, was not interrupted, and from day to day disease and death dogged their steps. Finally, in the year 1876, Truganini, who had long been the lonely relic of her people, joined them in death; yet this woman was born in the year 1803, about the same time that Bowen with the first settlers landed on the island, and thus between the date of the birth and death of this one but reasonably aged person, the tragedy of her entire race was completed and a people that had in all probability been the sole occupants of a whole country for ages, perhaps even from before the time of its separation from the mainland, was absolutely destroyed, leaving scarce a trace that it had ever existed.

CHAPTER IX

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

During the year 1836, Governor Arthur was recalled by the Imperial authorities to deal with an agitation in Upper Canada which it was thought his firm and resolute character peculiarly fitted him to cope with. He was succeeded by Sir John Franklin, whose disposition offered a strong contrast to that of the late ruler, seeing that he inclined in all cases more to mildness than to rigour; yet stern measures were at times undoubtedly necessary in a penal settlement. But whilst Sir John's character was open to criticism on that account, and whilst it brought him into conflict with leading officials trained by his predecessor to government of a harsher type, he rendered great service to the colony by his encouragement of education and morality.

Prior to his term, the island had been more backward in facilities for the instruction of its children than any of the mainland colonies. When he left it, this was so much altered that education was being promoted by schools in every centre of population, and some institutions of a higher grade, under able instructors, did much to encourage studies of an advanced order. In this they were aided by the presence, for some time, of a number of scientists, known to fame. Nevertheless, all round this hopeful light of education and science were the debasing surroundings of the convict system. The Governor was himself a scholar of some repute and one who personally aided the promotion of science. In his work of spreading the light of knowledge in the penal colony, the Governor's efforts were in no small degree aided by the arrival of a number of Chartists, transported from Great Britain for their connection with a political movement having for its object the spread of free institutions in that country. These people were mostly well read and intelligent, and moral in character. They proved in every way a benefit to the colony. But despite the spread of the light of knowledge, darker and darker grew the clouds of the convict system; for in addition to its accustomed share of the criminals of Great Britain, Van Diemen's Land began in the year 1841 to receive the proportion of them that had, up to that time, been sent to Port Jackson and Moreton Bay. In addition to this heavy burden of tainted humanity, it was seriously proposed by those in authority in Great Britain to make the afflicted island the receptacle for the worst criminals of all the Empire.

The great influx of convicts had, amongst other manifold evil results, the effect of preventing the colony from obtaining the advantage of a partly elective Legislative Council when, during the year 1843, that benefit was extended to New South Wales; for it was held at this period in Great Britain that a country which was largely populated by felons was unfitted for any measure of self-government.

Sir John Franklin terminated his connection with the island in the year 1843 and left for England where, some time after, he took command of an expedition for the discovery of a practical passage between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, round the north of the American continent. The expedition, unfortunately, ended disastrously; for Franklin and all his company perished amidst the icy wastes of the Arctic regions, and when

this was at length conclusively proved, science and humanity mourned the loss of the illustrious navigator. A bronze statue, erected on some land in Hobart, perpetuates his memory in the island colony, as does a bust in Westminster Abbey to the people of England.

CHAPTER X

GOVERNOR WILMOT AND THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL—HIS DIFFICULTIES, RECALL, AND DEATH

The successor of Sir John Franklin was Sir Eardley Wilmot, who arrived in the same year that Sir John retired. He had but a short and troubled career in the island. He came to an issue with the free settlers over the question of defraying the expenses of the Police Force. He held that the cost of the Force should be borne by the colony; whilst the colonists contended that it was unfair to debit the revenues of the colony with an expenditure that was mainly caused through the effect of the transportation of British criminals. The Legislative Council of twelve nominated members consisted of six holding Government positions and six others who were not officials. The former, depending for their salaried offices on the good-will of the Governor, gave no evidence of opinions in this matter that were not in agreement with those of their chief; whilst, on the other hand, the six independent nominees thought with the settlers. Hence, when the Governor submitted a resolution to the Council in favour of having money for the support of the Police provided at the expense of the colony, the officials in the Chamber voted with him for the motion; whilst the free nominees voted against it. The Governor was about to add his casting vote, which would then have made a majority for the resolution; but ere he could do so, the six free members walked out of the Chamber and so left the Governor without a quorum for the transaction of business. The oppositionists, who for their conduct in this matter became known as the "Patriotic Six," sent in their resignation by way of protest, and were for this and their previous action everywhere applauded by the colonists. Wilmot appointed six other persons to fill the vacant seats in the Council, and the Chamber, as thus altered, carried the motion; but the protest

of the members who had resigned was not without effect; for the matter was referred to the British Government, which disapproved of the manner in which the Governor had conducted what was its own policy and sent him word, during the year 1846, that he was recalled. This decision was so seriously taken to heart by Wilmot that he died within a few months of receiving it.

Like his predecessor, the deceased Governor had throughout his term been confronted with an agitation that, from the year 1843, had been steadily growing in strength, for the abolition of the convict system.

When, in addition to the hordes of criminals that were arriving from other sources, it was for the second time proposed to close the penal settlement at Norfolk Island and this time to transfer the prisoners there to Van Diemen's Land, which it seemed to be the intention of the British Government to retain indefinitely as a convict province, it was too much for the long-suffering settlers and the agitation begun during Franklin's term became much more determined. Public meetings of protest were held in the various centres and petitions were drawn up for presentation to the authorities in England; but apparently without any definite result. It was whilst this agitation was in vigorous progress that the recall and death of Sir Eardley Wilmot took place. Pending the arrival of his successor from England, Mr. Charles Labrobe, the Superintendent of the Port Phillip district, came over from Melbourne to administer the government.

CHAPTER XI

THE ABOLITION OF TRANSPORTATION AND THE ALTERATION OF THE COLONY'S NAME

Sir William Denison, the successor of the late Governor, arrived during the year 1847. His first action of any importance, after taking over the reins of government, was to reappoint the six Councillors who had resigned in protest against Governor Wilmot's policy of defraying the cost of maintaining the Police Force from the revenues of the colony.

Just as a regard for certain theories of the management of

prisoners had induced the selection of Sir John Franklin, so was that of Sir William Denison influenced by his experience as a controller of convicts in a British dockyard. But happily, the time was approaching when such considerations would no longer weigh in the choice of a Governor; for though the agitation commenced in the time of his immediate predecessors for the abolition of transportation appeared to be so unsuccessful that in the three years, ending in 1850, it was estimated that 25,000 prisoners were poured into the colony, still, sure progress towards success had been made. Alone, the islanders might have failed; but at their request their cause was taken up in the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia. A general Australian Anti-Transportation League was formed and by its efforts the long struggle against the convict system was carried to a successful issue and so, on the 31st December, 1852, the last convict ship arrived in the Derwent. But, before that, the stream of prisoners had been continued with little interruption, and the year 1849 was distinguished by the arrival in the island colony of a number of State prisoners from Ireland, of which the more noteworthy were Messrs. Smith O'Brien, Meagher, Mitchell, McManus, Martin, O'Dougherty, and O'Donoghue, who were transported for their connection with the attempted rebellion in their country, during the year 1848. They were all men of ability and some of them were possessed of talent of a high order. One of them, Patrick Francis Meagher, gave a most glowing account of the land of his detention.

Up to the close of the convict era, the island had preserved the name given to it by its discoverer; but as it was a title associated with convict infamies which had caused its inhabitants to be known as Van Demonians, it was decided that the old appellation should be changed to one that would be a reasonable reminder of its great discoverer and thus the name of the colony became Tasmania, and under that fair and sounding title, the island colony has become one of the most law-abiding of the Australian group, and it has been remarked by a competent observer that if there is any difference at the present day between the general character of the Tasmanian residents and that of those of the mainland provinces, it is that the islanders are a specially peaceful and contented people.

CHAPTER XII

THE CONSTITUTIONS OF THE YEARS 1850 AND 1856

DESPITE the objections that were in 1813 successful in preventing the establishment of a measure of representative government in the colony, a change of opinion had developed in Great Britain and thus, though in the year 1850 there were nearly 60,000 convicts of one class or another in the island, or more than there had been in 1813—when for convict reasons self-government had been refused—the Imperial Parliament passed a Bill which conferred on the colony, in the former year, similar rights in respect to the choice of two-thirds of the members of the Legislative Council as were possessed by the people of the mainland.

The gold discoveries in Australia, more particularly those in Victoria, caused a loss to the island of nearly one-third of its inhabitants; but amongst the departures were many who had been convicts, an element of the population whose departure was not lamented and could well be spared. Moreover, later on, these undesirables were amply replaced by arrivals of steady workers from England.

In the year 1855, Tasmania, like all the colonies of the mainland, except Western Australia, received the benefit of responsible government by a Constitution which came into force in the following year and, under which, her Parliament consisted of two Chambers—the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly. The Council consisted of eighteen members elected for six years by voters possessed of a freehold worth £15 per annum, or as occupants of property of the value of £50 per annum. Of its complement of members three retired annually, so that at the end of the six years the entire membership might be changed, if the electors so thought fit; but in practice very little change was actually made. The Assembly contained thirty-six members who were at first elected for five years, but later on, as was to be the case in all the constitutionally governed colonies, the period was made three years. Manhood suffrage did not accompany the reform; for electors were required to be the possessors of property of some ratable value, or to be the recipients of an income of not less than £40 per annum. In recent years this property qualification was abolished and at

the present time adult suffrage prevails. Both the members of the Assembly and Council have for a considerable period been paid—at least to the extent of £100 a year.

The Hare system of voting prevails in the election of members, who are required to be chosen in groups, and as each elector must vote for the full number of candidates that are necessary to fill the group in his constituency, it may happen under this system of balloting that the voter will be compelled to assist the return of a candidate that he had no wish to see in Parliament. However, it is claimed that the Hare expedient has given satisfaction and it has even been recommended, by some Tasmanians, for adoption elsewhere.

Despite the adoption of manhood suffrage with a high property qualification for candidates for the Council and a low one for those aspiring to the Assembly, there was, for a long time, very little difference in the political views of the members of the two sections of Parliament and consequently collisions between the two bodies were almost unknown. It was not till the rise of the mining industry caused a large influx of men with more democratic ideas than those who had previously been accustomed to elect the members of the House of Assembly that, the resulting changed character of a majority of the House, brought it at times into a position of decided opposition to the Council. Since then difficulties between the two branches of the Legislature have been far from uncommon.

CHAPTER XIII

TASMANIA AND FEDERATION

In the year 1886, the first meeting of the Federal Council of Australia was held in Hobart, and there it continued to hold its annual sessions till the final one in 1895.

No political section of Australia was more interested in the achievement of Federation than Tasmania and so, throughout the struggle to effect it, the island colony steadily supported each proposal that seemed to tend in the desired direction. It is therefore hardly necessary to state that when it was proposed to form a more effective union than that provided by the Federal Council, the Tasmanians gave the larger scheme their hearty

support, and that when, in the year 1899, they were called on to vote on the Convention Bill, their decision was a strongly affirmative one.

As the result of that vote, in conjunction with that of each of the mainland colonies, the Commonwealth was born, and from the date of its nativity Tasmania—no more a colony but a State—has, in place of some powers it surrendered to the Union, received with the greatest of the sister States the right, as a partner, to an equal share in the ruling of Australia.

It is true, that owing to its small population the equality only prevails in one branch of the Legislature—the Senate—and that the State has but five members in the House; but, even that number is in excess of that which it would receive on a population basis and is given by grace of the Constitution, which provides that each Original State must have not less than five members in the House of Representatives.

Apart from its representation in the two branches of the Legislature, Tasmania has from the establishment of the first Commonwealth Ministry, been regularly honoured by having one of its members in the Federal Parliament called upon to occupy a seat in the Cabinet, and thus in three ways the State has had a potent voice in the national affairs.

CHAPTER XIV

CLIMATE AND PRODUCTIONS

The Tasmanian climate is cooler than that of any of the other political sections of Australia and on that account the island is annually visited during the summer months by numbers of the more wealthy people of the mainland, who seek during their holiday to obtain a respite from the often trying heats of their own States.

By reason of its temperature the trees and plants which thrive best in cool climates are produced with special advantage and, in fact, all European fruits, such as apples, pears, strawberries, cherries, gooseberries, and raspberries, grow luxuriantly, and from the quantity of the first-mentioned fruit that is grown, Tasmania is sometimes jokingly referred to as the "Apple State."

Large shipments of the island fruits are forwarded to the mainland, and this also is the case with potatoes.

Valuable as are its vegetable productions, Tasmania has also a great and growing production of mineral wealth. The first appearance of a future for this industry began to be darkly visible in the discovery, as far back as the year 1850, of coal in the valleys of the Don and Mersey; but it was more than thirty years before the discovery was utilized and then not to any great extent; nor even to the present day is there much production of this mineral. It was far otherwise in respect to metals, for in this department mining began on a small scale as far back as 1867, and has been carried on with steadily improving results.

Amongst the discoveries made in this field, perhaps, the most important was that of the Beaconsfield quartz reefs, during the year 1877. The yield of gold from the crushings there far exceeds that obtained from the other gold fields of the island. In the year 1885, silver and lead were found to exist in considerable richness at Mount Zeehan, where the mines in operation have continued to the present day to be largely productive. Another great mining centre is Mount Lyell, which has proved to be a fruitful source of copper, with some gold, since shortly after its discovery, during the year 1886. About 1800 men are employed by the Mount Lyell Company in the work of obtaining and treating their ores.

But, perhaps, more noteworthy than the various gold, silver, copper, and lead mines, is the great tin mine in the north-west, which is known as Mount Bischoff, which was discovered in 1871, and which has now been worked, with great profit, for more than thirty years. It is, indeed, mainly owing to the large output of this mine that Tasmania stands first in the Commonwealth in the production of tin; still there are other, more or less, productive sources of the supply of this metal, as in the north-eastern, eastern, and western sections of the island.

In all, the various mining enterprises carried on at Mounts Lyell, Zeehan, Bischoff and Jasper employ thousands of men, and it may now be stated that the island State holds an excellent position in the production of the Commonwealth's mineral wealth.

Whilst that is so, in pastoral pursuits the State continues to maintain its early reputation as the breeder of a specially high-class sheep.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA

CHAPTER I

THE EXTENT AND FOUNDING OF THE COLONY

THE territory occupied by the colony of Western Australia was the third in order of the political sections of Australia to be allotted a government of its own. It embraces all that portion of the continent that lies to the west of the 129th meridian of east longitude, a line that divides it from the colony of South Australia and the Northern Territory. On the south it is washed by the Southern Ocean; on the west by the Indian Ocean, and on the north by the Arafura Sea. The vast area that lies between these limits occupies nearly one-third of the Australian continent, and though its coast-line was fairly known from the results of repeated Dutch discoveries long before anything was definitely determined of the eastern coast, it was—excluding the abortive and disastrous expedition of Pelsart—not till nearly forty years after Phillip with the first settlers landed in New South Wales, that any attempt was made to form a settlement within the confines of its widely separated borders.

At length, in the year 1825, General Darling, who was then the Governor of two-thirds of Australia, being apprehensive of French designs on some part of the western end of the southern coast and with the full approval of the British Government, despatched Major Lockyer with a small body of troops and convicts to establish a post at King George's Sound, and there, in the last days of that year, Lockyer landed and took possession; but the reports forwarded by him did not impress the Governor with the suitability of the locality for settlement purposes, though the military post was for some time permitted to remain at the Sound.

In hopes of finding territory more suitable for a colony, Darling despatched Captain Stirling to examine and report on

the country in the vicinity of the Swan River. The report of this officer was so favourable that the Governor sent him to England to urge on the authorities there the desirability of forming a settlement in the locality. In this mission, Stirling was successful and he was appointed to make the preliminary arrangements for a colonizing expedition. In the first instance, Captain Fremantle was sent out to take possession of the country, a duty he performed on the 2nd of May, 1829, when he hoisted the British flag on the South Head of the entrance to the Swan River and adjacent to the site of the city that was one day to be built there and to be called by his name. At this function, Fremantle formally took possession of the whole of the territory of New Holland, as the continent was then termed, that was not embraced within the limits of New South Wales. A month later, Captain Stirling bringing with him, in the transport *Parmella*, a number of intending settlers, arrived at the mouth of the Swan River, where H.M.S. *Sulphur* quickly joined him with other immigrants and a force of soldiers. Altogether, the arrivals by the two vessels formed a community of eight hundred persons, and these, pending the completion of arrangements for their permanent settlement, were landed on Garden Island, a place lying out in the ocean a short distance from the mouth of the Swan. On this island, which appeared to the arrivals to have few attractions, some temporary structures were erected for their shelter ; for winter was at hand and at any moment the weather might become cold and stormy.

Having in this way provided for his community, Stirling proceeded to the mainland, where, on the 18th of June, he read the proclamation announcing the establishment of the colony and his own appointment as its first Governor. His commission was far from definite as to the eastern bounds of the colony, and it was not till the year 1831 that it was finally decided that the line of the 129th meridian should form the eastern limit, and that boundary has remained to the present day ; though those of every other colony, except Victoria, have been subject to at least one change, and even that of Victoria is not the one originally decided on for the district which subsequently became the colony.

The land near the mouth of the Swan, being sandy and barren, was quite unsuitable for the site of a settlement, which it was fondly hoped would mainly rely on production from the soil.

The Governor, therefore, ascended the river till he came to a place where the country appeared to be well adapted for the purpose in view. He named the locality Perth and there, before the close of the year, began to arise the first humble structures of the village of that name which was to grow into a prosperous city and which was, from its earliest inception, the governing centre of the largest of the political sections of Australia.

CHAPTER II

THE COLONY ESTABLISHED ON PEELITE PRINCIPLES

Unlike any of the other settlements made by Great Britain, the new colony was founded on the principle that the land should be given away to its settlers in proportion to the value of goods or money they possessed. This idea was first submitted by Mr. Thomas Peel, who proposed, when he observed the good account given by Captain Stirling of the country, that a colony should be established in the territory without convicts and wherein each intending colonist should be granted forty acres of land for every £3 in cash or equivalent goods that he possessed.

Under such a system it may be readily conceived that the country would be speedily divided into estates of great extent, for some of the settlers brought with them fairly substantial values, and thus a man, for example, possessed of the sum, or its equivalent, of £300 would be entitled to receive 4000 acres.

Though the Imperial Government was not prepared to accept the Peel proposals without restrictions, in the main his ideas were adopted, and so it was decided that a colony should be formed on the banks of the Swan wherein their effect would be practically tried.

CHAPTER III

THE LAND SCHEME LEADS TO CONVICT SETTLEMENT

Whilst Stirling was making arrangements for the establishment of his capital, some of the immigrants on Garden Island proceeded to land on Fremantle beach, and on account of the

condition whereby their grants of land were to be proportionate to their possessions, some of them had brought from England costly articles which they were well assured would be of little use in the strenuous life of a bush settlement, and as these had already served their purpose of being valued for land, they were abandoned on the beach by their owners, who anxiously desired to proceed to their lands, bearing as few impediments as possible. Unfortunately, for the majority of them, the possessors of ample supplies of money or goods received the first choice of the lands to be distributed, and as the size of their grants was governed by the extent of their possessions, the whole of the country around Perth and for a considerable distance out from its locality fell into their hands; whilst the poorer, and for that reason, perhaps, the more useful of the colonists, had to go far from the market the settlement afforded for the lands allotted to them, where the soil, in numbers of instances, proved worthless in character. Moreover, no settler was allowed to take possession of his grant till it was properly measured, and as there were few surveyors available for the purpose, the work of surveying proved deplorably slow. In fact, it was not till nearly the close of the month of September that the first country lots were ready for acceptance. Hence, most of the immigrants were compelled to remain in Perth consuming the wealth they had brought to the country, so that when at last they were free through the completion of the surveys to go and occupy their lands, they were left without means to maintain their families till some kind of crop might be expected from their labours. Besides, owing to the great size of the grants of the wealthy, the smaller settlers often found themselves surrounded by a great unknown and trackless wilderness, tenanted only by wandering savages, who were always thieves and frequently worse.

In short, the lonely and deluded settlers were unable to remain on their lands and these were one after another abandoned in despair; whilst their owners, with the remnant of the possessions they had brought to the country, returned to Perth to seek passages back to England, or to the flourishing settlements in the eastern colonies.

Amongst those who failed was Peel, the author of the disastrous land scheme in force. He had brought to the country good labourers, excellent stock, and the best of implements—in fact every essential for successful farming and, after the usual

deplorable delay, was permitted to take possession of a large area which proved to be so poor in quality as to be of no use for the purposes of agriculture. There, his labourers decamped; his stock was poisoned by noxious weeds; his expensive implements rusted on the ground; whilst he, the originator of the plan of settlement that was to have begotten a model colony, found himself hopelessly stranded and oppressed in mind by the haunting thought that his own great scheme was the source of his woes.

When these gloomy tidings reached Great Britain an immediate end was put to further emigration to a colony whose prospects appeared so dark and hopeless. Nevertheless, amidst the wreck of hopes and of failing fortunes, a few persons succeeded in maintaining themselves on their lands, and partly by the results of their labours, helped by the expenditure of Government officials, the colony managed to struggle on. By the year 1835, a township had sprung up at York within the area of agricultural land to the eastward of Perth and another of a similar character, at Bunbury, on the coast. Still the prospects of the country continued so clouded that, with the eager assent of the colonists, the Imperial Government at length declared the territory a penal settlement and commenced in the year 1848 to send to it a portion of the criminals that the eastern colonies were unwilling to receive.

CHAPTER IV

LAND MONOPOLY WITHOUT LABOUR

Long before the advent of the first convicts, the disastrous results of Peel's scheme had caused its complete abandonment; but the immediate evils that it had created were followed by others of a more permanent character. Great areas of the best and most accessible lands were held unused by persons who had paid nothing for them and who, where they were willing to sell at reasonable prices, found no buyers, for labour to work the soil was unobtainable. This, prior to the conversion of the colony into a convict settlement, was in part due to the fact that the Government had no funds to pay the passages of workers from Europe. In the eastern colonies this was being done out of the

proceeds of the sale of public lands; but, as we have seen, in Western Australia all the accessible and productive land around Perth and in the adjacent districts had been parted with for nothing. Hence, as there were practically no receipts from the sale of Government lands and no funds available from other sources for immigration purposes, whilst few were willing to go voluntarily to an unprogressive colony, the population of the province made little increase, and this whilst that of the eastern colonies was advancing with rapidity and their wealth and production by leaps and bounds. Without workers the lands of the country were largely unused, and when during the convict period the land-owners made some attempts to seriously utilize the labour of prisoners, it was discovered, as it had been elsewhere, that the forced services of the convicts were ineffective. What was worse, the fact of their presence as labourers tended to prevent the arrival of willing workers who, despite the absence of free passages, might have been induced by the certainty of employment to come to the colony, but, with few exceptions, they carefully avoided the land where, alone on the mainland of Australia, they would be subjected to the competition of convict labourers. Hence, though Western Australia ceased to be in peril, during the penal regime, it made scarcely any progress, and this stagnation continued to prevail long after transportation had been abolished.

Such was the state of affairs in the colony which it was once fondly hoped would prove an example to the world and especially to the communities in Eastern Australia, which, though founded on the basis of prison labour, had, on the whole, maintained the principle of the free sale of the lands of the State to those who were willing and able to pay for them.

CHAPTER V

SOME EVENTS OF THE FIRST HALF-CENTURY

The history of Western Australia during the first fifty years of her existence as a colony presents few landmarks other than those of discoveries; but amongst the events that may be chronicled are the arrival at Fremantle in the year 1845 of the

first steam vessel—H.M.S. *Driver*; the foundation in the succeeding year of the important mission at New Norcia; the discovery, during the year 1848, of copper and lead in the Champion district; the finding, two years later, of pearl oysters at Saturday Island, which was the forerunner of the large pearl-fishing industry, and the origin of that export of pearl-shell which began during the year 1862 and which has continued to the present day to be a feature of life on the north-west coast.

After a long interval without events of social or economic import, in the year 1877, another stage in the way of progress was slowly reached with the opening up of the telegraph line to South Australia.

CHAPTER VI

THE ABANDONMENT OF TRANSPORTATION

Even with the deterrent effect of the competition and presence of a degraded form of labour, not only on the land but also on the public works of all species, a certain number of workers might have come to the province at their own expense, but ships had few inducements to touch at a colony where there was little trade and from whence passengers were only allowed to be taken to the eastern colonies under serious restrictions made by those provinces lest persons who were, or had been convicts, should succeed in attempts to reach their shores. Despite every care in this matter, it was constantly feared in the eastern colonies that some of the transported population of the western province would evade the restrictions and land in their territory. In consequence of this loud and frequent protests were made, particularly in Victoria, against the continuance of the convict menace in a part of Australia. It was even proposed in Melbourne that the penal colony should be boycotted by the other members of the Australian family. At length, after the protests of individual provinces had proved unavailing, a new Anti-Transportation League was established amongst the eastern colonies to effect for Western Australia what the old one had achieved for Tasmania, and, by the result of its efforts, advice was received in 1864, that within three years from then, transportation to Western Australia would be abandoned. This

satisfactory intelligence was helped by the fact that considerable tracts of good country were discovered between Cossack and Roebuck Bay, on the north-west coast and, into that remote locality, it was deemed to be undesirable to introduce convicts without making what would prove most expensive arrangements for their control and maintenance at that distance from the Perth head-quarters, and, at the same time, it was not thought advisable to divide the colony into two sections, one bond and the other free.

It was whilst this matter was being considered that the protests from the eastern colonies were effectually put forward, and the result was that it was decided that the whole scheme of the settlement of the colony by British prisoners should be abandoned and in the year 1868 the western province ceased to be a convict settlement.

Up to the end of the penal period and for two years longer the colony had been ruled by the Governors, aided by the advice of a small Nominee Council of five officials and five non-official members. In the year 1870 this system gave place to a measure of parliamentary government, similar to that which had prevailed in the other colonies till the close of the year 1855. The Constitution of 1870 provided for a Legislative Council of eighteen members, of whom six were Crown nominees and twelve elective on a small property qualification. Later on the number of members was increased to twenty-one, with the same proportion of nominee and elective members. As thus constituted, the Council continued to exist till the end of the first century of Australian settlement; but two years later the vast western colony was brought into line with its eastern sisters by being endowed with Responsible Government.

During the period that elapsed between the years 1870 and 1888, it is not to be assumed that West Australia was content with its partly representative Council. It was not; but, in reply to the expression of the colony's desire for a full measure of parliamentary government, it was pointed out by the Imperial authorities that the population of the province was but a mere handful compared with the vast area that it claimed to govern, and that whilst there would be no objection to conceding responsible government to the south-western portion of the colony, where the population was centred, it could only be granted on condition that the northern half of the province was separated

and became a Crown Colony. Fortunately, the West Australians did not accept this suggestion; for though their colony is greatly too large to permanently remain as one State, it is highly probable, had they consented to its division at the time it was proposed, that under direct Imperial sway the suggested Crown Colony would have been developed on lines similar to those that have prevailed in Fiji, and thus a large portion of the continent might have become the seat of a coloured population.

The objections of the Imperial politicians to the existence of an immense area of country in the north, without population and unimproved, were partly answered by the influx of a considerable number of gold-seekers into the Kimberley district and by the extension of telegraph communication to the north-west, whence a cable, starting at Roebuck Bay, was laid to Banjoewangie in Java. By these and other events there was sufficient to indicate that the West Australians were making, and were impressed with the necessity of making, some real use of their spacious northern country, and thus it was that it remained connected with the south during all the transition period in Australian political history and till the advent of a Government which, in case of need, could effectively speak for Australia in matters affecting any suggested division of its territory, that might endanger the security and purity of its white population.

CHAPTER VII

EXPLORATION IN AND FROM THE COLONY

The first recorded attempt at exploring the country at any distance from Perth and Fremantle was made by Captain Bannister, who travelled overland from Perth to King George's Sound in the same year that Governor Stirling landed. In the following year, Mr. Surveyor S. Roe, R.N., led an exploring expedition to Cape Naturaliste, discovering on the way the Collier and Preston rivers. Later on in the year, he penetrated east of Perth as far as Lake Brown and noted the existence of a number of salt lakes. About the same time, Mr. G. Moore traced the course of the Swan River to its junction with the Avon. He afterwards successively discovered the Moore River, flowing

into the Indian Ocean, northward of Perth, and a tract of good grazing country to the east and north of the future town of Northam.

An expedition of a more ambitious character was undertaken early in the year 1838, by Lieutenant George Grey. He landed in the far north-west, on the shores of Brunswick Bay, having in view a journey overland to Perth; but he quickly found that the task before him was altogether beyond his resources and the only results from this expedition were the discovery of the Glenelg River and some remarkable rock paintings in the caves amongst the hills near the source of that stream.

In the following year, Grey landed at Bernier Island, at the entrance to Sharks' Bay, and thence, with three whale-boats for his company, purposed to start to explore the coast. From the outset he met with misfortune; for one boat was smashed by the waves ere he had embarked from the island. With the other two he proceeded to the mainland. Landing opposite to the island, he discovered the Gascoyne River, along which he found some good country. From the mouth of this river the boats were directed south till they reached Gantheaume Bay; but here a second and worse disaster befell the expedition; for both of the remaining boats were destroyed in the surf. Happily, no loss of life accompanied the accident; but the party found itself with little food marooned on a barren shore, three hundred miles from Perth and the nearest habitations, and with an unknown country lying between. Still there was nothing for it but to start on the way to the settlement; for there only could provisions be obtained. Grey left the bulk of his men at the bay and with three followers only, started to make the long journey. On his way south he crossed and named the Murchison, Hutt, Brown, Buller, Chapman, Greenhough, Irwin, and Arrowsmith rivers, and, finally, arrived at his destination in a deplorable condition from want and fatigue.

During the same year Mr. Moore, who had previously distinguished himself as a successful explorer, found some good country in the Vasse district, between Perth and Champion Bay.

Two years later, Mr. W. N. Clarke, who had made an expedition in a whale-boat from Albany to Deep River and Point D'Entrecasteaux, reported the existence of great jarrah and karri forests in that locality.

Another important expedition was that which was commenced in the latter part of the year 1840, by Mr. Edward John Eyre. Leaving Adelaide, he proceeded to Fowler Bay and thence undertook to march round the unknown shores of the Australian Bight to King George's Sound.

Despite probable danger from the blacks, he took with him but one white companion and an aboriginal. Fortunately, when he reached the middle of the Bight he was assisted with provisions which he urgently needed by the captain of a French vessel that happened to be within hailing reach in that locality. Aided in this way, he was enabled to proceed on his course, which mostly lay through a barren, waterless country, and finally arrived at his goal after having been nearly five months on the way.

The most noteworthy journey that followed this was that made by the three Gregory brothers, who, in the year 1846, started in an easterly direction from Perth, in search of pastoral country, and reached within a short distance of the future Coolgardie gold-fields. They then turned westward from near the site of the present town of Menzies, and discovered coal seams at the head of the Arrowsmith River.

In the year 1869, Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Forrest, with the intention of searching for the lost expedition of Leichhardt, which it was thought might be somewhere in the interior of Western Australia, started in a north-easterly direction from Perth and reached Lake Barlee. In the following year he went overland to South Australia, travelling generally a little to the north of Eyre's route, with the result that instead of the arid and barren country that Eyre had passed over, well-grassed plains were found on most of the way to South Australia.

Four years later, Forrest made a still longer and more noteworthy journey of exploration; for starting from the Murchison River, he went right through the heart of the colony to its western limit, and thence on to the overland telegraph line that extends from Adelaide to the northern coast. By this journey the character of a large extent of the unknown country was carefully noted and described by the explorer.

Mr. Alexander Forrest, a brother of the last-mentioned explorer, made during the year 1879, an important, though not quite such a lengthy exploration as that just referred to. This traveller starting from the De Grey River, in the north-west,

examined the coast to the Fitzroy River, and following that stream up close to its source, pushed on by the head waters of the Victoria River to the overland telegraph line. He discovered in this journey the fine pastoral country known as Kimberley.

CHAPTER VIII

THE COLONY ON THE EVE OF THE GOLD DISCOVERIES

In the closing days of the first century of Australian settlement, Western Australia, though one of the oldest of the colonies of the group, was far more backward in all the evidences of social and political progress than any other of the sisterhood of States, and though for twenty years it had ceased to be a receptacle for criminals, the bad name it had acquired during the many years that it had remained the sole penal settlement on the continent had so greatly impeded its onward march that it made scarcely any advance, and thus, three score years after the arrival of the first settlers, it contained but 43,000 inhabitants. Such was the poor record of a vast territory embracing wide expanses of fertile country, interspersed with areas bearing all the signs of metallic wealth—appearances that, as will be shown in the following pages, were about to be proved to be correct indications and which were ere long to be further and most abundantly confirmed by discoveries of immeasurably greater importance, whose effect, in a period that might easily be computed in months, was to show a far greater progress than that which had been slowly and painfully achieved, in the long, plodding passage of sixty years.

THE GOLD DISCOVERIES AND THEIR EFFECT

Though the existence of gold in the north-westerly portion of Australia was reported long before the country was claimed by Great Britain, no discovery of importance was made in that section of the country till the year 1885, when both alluvial and reef gold was found in the Kimberley district, where, thereafter, mining was undertaken with fair results.

But long before the Kimberley find was reported—in fact, as far back as the year 1847—a traveller and prospector named

Calvert had discovered, much further to the south and west, reliable evidence of the existence of the precious metal on the upper courses of the Ashburton and Murchison rivers. Nothing, however, was done to utilize his information for a long period, and it was not till the year 1891 that his report was verified by the finding in each of the localities mentioned by him of both quartz and alluvial gold. Mining was then undertaken on each of these fields and with particularly good results in the Murchison district.

Prior to this, or in the year 1887, a still more important auriferous region was found in the Yilgarn district, situated about 250 miles eastward of Perth. This discovery was the immediate forerunner of the finding of and successful mining for the precious metal at a number of places in the Pilbarra district. But all of these discoveries were about to be overshadowed by one of infinitely more importance; for during the year 1892, Messrs. Bayley and Ford reported, and their report was verified, that they had found rich gold-bearing country in the Coolgardie district, situated considerably to the eastward of the Yilgarn field. Immediately this news became known, a rush set in—at first from the settled parts of the colony; but soon large numbers of gold-seekers from all parts of Australia came pouring in, and for a time the long journeys and labours of many of these men were abundantly rewarded by rich returns. As these began to fall off, some of the prospectors moved still further eastward and there came across the Kalgourlie field, which was soon to be famous as one of the chief gold-producing localities of the world and as the richest of the existing auriferous fields of Australia.

The first effect of the new discovery was to attract a great part of the gold-seekers from the more westerly workings and then to draw a still greater crowd of aspirants for fortune from the eastern states than that which had been allured by the tales of Coolgardie's golden wealth. But the new-comers at once saw that though the district was rich with the precious metal, there was little scope, except as prospectors for new reefs, for those who wished to be their own employers in gold-winning. While this fact debarred the new arrivals from making rapid fortunes, in the same manner as many of the diggers of Victoria had done forty years before, it at least ensured to them, for years to come, a regular and large payment for their services in the mines.

Another result of the permanent success of the Kalgourlie field was that two great neighbouring and prosperous towns sprang up in the immediate vicinity of the principal mines, and these, which are respectively known as Boulder and Kalgourlie, are now not only two of the greatest of the centres of Western Australia, but are also among the chief and most "up-to-date" of the inland cities of the Commonwealth.

By subsequent discoveries to that of Kalgourlie, the extent of the areas where gold is being won has considerably increased and now, at intervals, from Kimberley in the north to Dundas in the south, and out from Kalgourlie to Menzies in the further east, numbers of men are busily engaged in the search for gold.

With the large population that had made its home on the gold-fields was the fact that the great bulk of it had come from the eastern States which, though wanting more people themselves, could well afford to spare those who would open up and, if need arose, would defend the most defenceless portion of their common country. The extent and importance of the influx into Western Australia that the gold-fields had caused may be readily judged from the fact that in the year 1891, or shortly before the Coolgardie discovery, the population of the Western State was estimated to be 58,674, and that in the opening year of the twentieth century it exceeded 180,000 persons; whilst, during the same period, the revenue of the colony increased nearly sixfold and the expenditure in a slightly larger degree. In fact, though blessed with a number of other sources of wealth, Western Australia is wholly indebted to the Coolgardie and Kalgourlie gold-fields for bringing her, in a few years, from a position immensely behind the next most backward of the eastern colonies to one in which she could take an honourable place among the sisterhood of States that form to-day the Australian Commonwealth. Nay more, it is highly probable, if there had been no Coolgardie or Kalgourlie gold-fields, that Western Australia would not have been permitted to enter the Commonwealth as an Original State, and that even had that concession been granted to her handful of people, it is scarcely likely that it would have been accepted, for the West Australians who had grown up in the colony before the time of the gold-fields era had little in common with the sentiment of the people of the eastern provinces and, if called upon to poll on the question of Australian Federation,

they would most probably have recorded their votes in the negative.

It should here be added that in the Commonwealth Constitution which the western men endorsed, there was a provision made for the exceptional position that Western Australia was placed in by the gold-fields and by the fact that a great mass of her imports came from the eastern States. Had the revenue derived from the latter been suddenly cut off, the Treasury would have been largely depleted. In consequence, it was provided that, for five years after Federation, Western Australia might levy duties on goods from the east; but these imposts were to decrease by one-fifth annually. Hence, the collections finally came to an end in the year 1906.

A further concession of a similar character was subsequently made, for just as Tasmania succeeded in inducing the Commonwealth to accord a special consideration to her owing to the fact that so much of the goods consumed within her limits were either re-exports from, or the produce of, the eastern States, so did Western Australia, after the failure of the Referendum on the financial questions in the year 1910, find that the National Government recognized that her revenues were in a difficult position from a like cause. Accordingly it was provided that for a period of ten years from 1910, an annual amount should be granted to Western Australia, which should commence with £250,000 for the first year and be reduced by £10,000 yearly, that is to say, for the second year the amount would be £240,000, and so on, so that, at the end of the ten years, the last payment would be £150,000. By that time it may be assumed the State will be able to wholly rely on its own resources.

CHAPTER IX

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT—THE COLONY BECOMES A STATE OF THE COMMONWEALTH

The agitation in the colony for a Constitution similar to those in existence in Eastern Australia was supported in the year 1889 by a unanimous vote of the Legislative Council and this, greatly aided by the influence of the other colonies, was decisive

with the authorities in Great Britain, and thus, in the following year, the Imperial Parliament passed a measure granting to the western province Responsible, combined with Representative, Government, and this in the following year came into full operation.

With the choice then of a Parliament and Government based on the new order of things, there appeared to be no longer an impediment except, it might be, the paucity of the population—a defect that was being rapidly removed by the influx of people to the gold-fields—in the way of such proceedings as the colony might adopt towards joining, as a political equal, in the movement in progress in the eastern colonies, for the establishment, on a Federal basis, of a permanent union of the Australian States.

But, small as was its population, prior to the gold-fields and, particularly, before the centennial era, and remote as the colony then appeared to be from a position of equality with the smallest of the eastern provinces, Western Australia was, nevertheless, a participator in the movement, in 1883, which resulted in the establishment of the Federal Council—a body that received her active adhesion up to the close of its brief career. But becoming, thereafter, engrossed in local affairs, which the great gold-fields rush had suddenly and vastly increased in volume, some years were to elapse before the western colony was to be in a position to devote further attention to the Australian problem. But the time had come in the year 1900, and when then, after consideration, the statesmen of the West resolved to submit to the electors of their colony that Federal Bill which the other colonies had, in the previous year, determined to adopt, the western voters, on the 31st of July, by a decisive majority accepted it also, and with their adherence to the Compact of Union, the Australian family was fully complete.

Owing to her comparatively small population, Western Australia, like Tasmania, has had to take advantage of the provision in the Constitution which guarantees a minimum of five members in the House of Representatives, to each State, which, by the smallness of its population, might be otherwise entitled to a lesser number; but, equally with each of the more populous States, she returns six representatives to the Senate. In the former Chamber one of her members, Sir John Forrest, has, from the outset, occupied a prominent position; whilst, in the latter,

one of her representatives, Senator Pearce, has during recent years, in the opinion of his opponents, proved an able Director of the Defence Department in a period of great and unexampled responsibility.

The special record of Western Australia cannot be fairly brought to a close without mentioning that the year 1903 was signalized by the opening, under the Government of Sir John Forrest, of a great system of water supply, whereby the Kalgourlie gold-fields, which are situated in the midst of an extremely arid country, were abundantly furnished with the necessary water which is driven through pipes from Northam, near the source of the supply and some hundreds of miles nearer the western coast.

Nor may we fail to record, that the large population that has been resident in the State since the gold-fields era has, apart from its effect in Australian politics, been moved by many ideas in the control of the local affairs that would certainly not have been current had the new citizens not been actively present. The most notable effect of their influence has been that from being somewhat conservative in politics, as the most of their predecessors were, the majority of the western electors have, in recent years, favoured the policy of the Labour Party. They have, in fact, regularly returned an increasing body of members in support of its programmes and, for a considerable time previous to the second half of the year 1916, the State was ruled by a Labour Government; whilst in Commonwealth politics, the whole of its Senators have, from the outset, been pronounced adherents of the same party.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA

CHAPTER I

ITS DISCOVERY

Two years after the founding of the settlement on the Swan River, a movement was started for the establishment of a fourth province between the western limits of New South Wales and the eastern confines of Western Australia.

As previously narrated, the coast of the portion of Australia where it was proposed to establish the new colony was discovered by Flinders ; but Captain Sturt was the first explorer who actually passed through any portion of the future State. He believed from what he saw of the country on the way to Lake Alexandrina that a fertile and valuable tract of land existed between Spencer's Gulf and the course of the Murray in its bend southward to the sea. On his return to Sydney, he represented this opinion so strongly to Governor Darling that Captain Barker, the officer in command of the troops then stationed at King George's Sound, was instructed to land at Cape Jervis and to explore the country on the eastern coast of Spencer's Gulf. Captain Barker arrived off Cape Jervis on the 13th April, 1831, and after sailing some distance northward, landed on the eastern shore of the gulf. Accompanied only by Mr. Kent, one of his friends, he then proceeded inland to the summit of some high hills, which Flinders, who had seen them from the sea, had called the Mount Lofty Range. There, facing towards the coast, the two explorers beheld below and in front of them, falling rapidly away to the blue waters of the ocean, in the distance, a splendid undulating plain, covered either by patches of fine forest trees, or expanses of open, well-grassed soil. This beautiful sloping plain was in after years to be the site of the city of Adelaide.

When Captain Barker returned from Mount Lofty to his vessel he directed her course southward for some distance and then,

with a few companions, landed for the purpose of exploring the country near Lake Alexandrina. When the party came to the channel by which the lake connects with Encounter Bay, Barker, unaccompanied by any of his friends, sprang into the stream and swam across it. On arriving at the other side he crossed a range of low sand hills and was seen no more. It was afterwards learned that, on crossing the sand hillocks, he had come upon a tribe of blacks, who speared him and threw his body into the deep water, from whence it was carried out to sea by the current.

The results of Barker's expedition were not lost by his death, for Mr. Kent, one of his companions, related the discoveries that had been made to Captain Sturt, who embodied them in the account he was writing of his own discoveries. From Sturt's narrative it was learnt, in England, that there was a suitable location, near Spencer's Gulf, for the site of a new colony.

CHAPTER II

THE ORIGIN AND LIMITS OF THE COLONY

Through the information supplied by Sturt's report, the subject of the proposed new settlement was before the end of the year 1831 discussed in Great Britain ; but the matter was allowed to drop, till it was revived in the year 1834, by Mr. Gibbon Wakefield and others, who wished to establish a colony in which a land policy should obtain which would differ from any that had hitherto been adopted. Wakefield and his friends were opposed to the system of free grants that, to some extent, had prevailed in New South Wales and Tasmania and, with disastrous results, in the recently established colony on the Swan River, where it had been intended to be the chief means of attracting settlers and where it was, for a time, the sole system of land policy.

In lieu of free grants, it was proposed, under the Wakefield scheme, that the land should be sold at a sufficient price and that that price should be so high that only men of means would be able to become land-owners. It was held by the Wakefield party that if the free labourers, and only such were to be sent to the

settlement, could purchase land with the savings from their earnings in one or two years, they would not continue to work for the large land-owners, and it was such proprietors that the scheme aimed at securing for the colony. It was desired, in fact, to copy in the new province the system that existed in Great Britain, where large land-holders and a leisured class were the rule at one end of the social scale and labourers, without a hope of rising beyond this class, prevailed at the other.

Wakefield had one very good proposition amongst others that were open to question. He proposed that the money obtained from the sales of Government lands should be devoted to import labourers from Great Britain to cultivate the soil; but in his claim for a high price for the land of the colony, he overlooked the fact that people would not pay a higher price for land in South Australia than they would have to pay for similar country in other portions of Australia. However, his ideas appealed to the influential land-owners of Great Britain and they helped him in the formation of a South Australian Association, and in the passing, in the year 1834, of a Bill through the Imperial Parliament which provided for the establishment of a colony to be known as the Province of South Australia.

The colony that was ordained under that statute occupied the central part of the southern portion of the continent, where it extended from the 141st to the 132nd meridian of east longitude and from the 26th parallel to the Southern Ocean. This delimitation left the country from the 132nd to the 129th meridian as a part of New South Wales, which at this period contained, in addition to the strip of country between the western limits of South Australia and eastern bounds of Western Australia, all the territory on the mainland of the continent which was not comprised in the areas of these two colonies, so that at this time South Australia was enclosed on three sides by New South Wales territory. In the year 1863 the strip of territory between the 132nd and 129th meridians was separated from New South Wales and very properly added to South Australia, whose western limit then became the 129th meridian. When this alteration was made, South Australia became the only one of the five mainland colonies which bordered on each and all the others, including also the Northern Territory. As it has stood since 1863, the area of the province is 380,070 square miles and, in

this, excluding the Northern Territory, it holds the third position in dimensions of the various political sections of the Commonwealth.

CHAPTER III

PROVISIONS OF THE ACT ESTABLISHING THE COLONY

By the Act constituting the Province of South Australia, it was provided that no convicts were to be sent to the colony; that the minimum price per acre of land should be twelve shillings an amount that was afterwards raised to twenty shillings—and that the receipts from the land sales were to form an Emigration Fund. Amongst the provisions in this section of the Act were those which required that whole families were to be sent out together; that as far as possible there should be an equality of the sexes and that the passages should be defrayed only of persons under the age of thirty years. It was further provided that the Emigration Fund and its disbursement for passages should be under the management of a Board of eight Commissioners, of whom Colonel Torrens was appointed Chairman; whilst the general affairs of the colony were to be, as elsewhere, under the control of a Governor. Above all, it was laid down that the province should entail no expense on the mother country, either in its founding or maintenance. Another provision was that there should be no established Church in the colony. These conditions were in the sequel strictly adhered to, and thus in due time a colony was established and maintained at no cost to the mother country, without the taint of convictism and without a State Church.

The Board of Commissioners offered the office of Governor of the colony they were about to found to General Charles Napier, and he would have accepted the position had he not been refused by the Imperial authorities the services of a small body of troops and the power to draw on the British Treasury for funds in case of need. Failing General Napier, Captain Hindmarsh was appointed, early in the year 1836, to the position of Governor.

CHAPTER IV

THE FOUNDING OF THE COLONY AND THE RECALL OF ITS FIRST GOVERNOR

The first vessel with immigrants for the colony landed them at Kangaroo Island, in the month of August, 1836; but this locality proving wholly unsuitable, the immigrants returned to their ship, which then sailed to the mainland, where one of the principal of the intending settlers, Colonel Light, who bore the appointment of Surveyor-General, found an excellent site for a settlement on the banks of what was later on to be known as the Torrens River, so called after Colonel Torrens, the Chairman of the Board of Commissioners. On the 28th of December of the same year, a date that is annually celebrated in the colony, Governor Hindmarsh with a considerable number of immigrants arrived and landed on the shores of Holdfast Bay, about six miles from where Colonel Light had stationed his fellow colonists. The same day, under the shade of a giant gum tree, Hindmarsh read the Letters Patent establishing the colony and appointing him to be its first Governor.

Because he was a sailor and desired to be near the sea, Hindmarsh grew very dissatisfied with the site that had been chosen by the surveyor-general. He, therefore, made an attempt to establish the head-quarters of the colony on the shores of the bay; but this project was opposed by all who had bought land on the site of Colonel Light's choice. Their protests were supported by him and by Mr. J. H. Fisher, the representative of the Board of Commissioners. The result of this powerful opposition was that the Governor had to give way, and thus the excellent situation selected by the Surveyor-General became the position of the capital which received the name of Adelaide, in honour of the Queen. The Governor's attempt to change the site, in addition to being unsuccessful, was one of the reasons that made him unpopular from the outset, and as he proved to be possessed of little administrative ability, a number of complaints against him were made to London, with the result that after holding his position but eighteen months, he was, in the year 1838, recalled from the colony.

CHAPTER V

THE LAND CRISIS

To Governor Hindmarsh succeeded Colonel Gawler, who arrived in the same year that his predecessor was recalled.

Shortly after he took over the reins of government an extraordinary mania for speculation in land set in amongst the residents in and around the town of Adelaide. Sections and allotments of land, altogether unimproved, were marked off and sold as though they were within the limits of a great and rising metropolis, but the buyers had no intention of holding their purchases. Their sole object was to re-sell at a higher price than they had given, and this they generally succeeded in doing. Whilst this unhealthy state of affairs was proceeding, and before it began, the Governor was expending considerable sums of money in constructing public buildings, mainly with the object of furnishing employment to the numerous unemployed; but in so doing he was attracting numbers of labourers into the town who but for this policy would have been much more profitably employed in cultivating the land. At length the Treasury was empty through this expenditure, and the fact that little revenue was coming in. Under these circumstances the Governor appealed to the authorities in England for financial aid; but his request was promptly refused. Immediately the news of this arrived in Adelaide, it opened the eyes of the land speculators, who realized that they had been buying and selling at extravagant prices portions of land in and around what was but a small town and one apparently without prospects of growing to importance, in what seemed to be an impoverished province. This becoming generally accepted, the values of the lots fell so enormously that those who had bought in the hope of a rise in prices were ruined, and as their failures threw scores out of employment and injured business in all directions, the position of affairs was rendered worse than it had been prior to the beginning of the land "boom." Happily for the colony, ere the worst of the crisis was reached there were circumstances in operation that were in no long time to place the province on a sounder footing than it had been before the recent troubles began. The first of these was the arrival during the years 1837 and 1839 from New South

Wales of several parties with sheep and cattle which, instead of selling, they sought and found grazing country for in the province, and there they settled down as pastoralists. Others in the colony began to follow their example, and thus large areas of land that had till then been neglected began to be taken up and to have an increasing value.

Another event of this period that was not without effect in this matter was the discovery made by Eyre, who in the course of an expedition, during the year 1839, northward from Adelaide came across Lake Torrens, and on the way found land suitable for settlement purposes. Proceeding, after his return, on an overland journey from Adelaide to King George's Sound, he discovered, in the South Australian part of his journey, the peninsula known by his name, and there, also, his report indicated the presence of much country suitable for grazing purposes. To this locality a number of intending grazers proceeded and took up tracts of country much to the future benefit of the colony.

Still, on the whole, the outlook was far from hopeful, and as the Governor Gawler, who had been recalled, was leaving the colony the prospect was gloomy for a community whose outlay considerably exceeded its income and whose imports were greater in value than that of its exports. With these circumstances was the patent fact that some of the small population was steadily leaving for the eastern colonies, where land was to be had at a lower rate.

As against these reasons for discouragement was the fact that agricultural and pastoral pursuits were actually in a sound position. There was also the consideration that the province had vast areas of good but unused pastoral land, which it might be hoped would be taken up and utilized to the profit of labour which the existence of relief works had been drawing to the capital. This would occur as soon as the Government might see fit to resolve on a strict economy in the public expenditure, and when the price of Government lands in the eastern colonies should cease to be lower than that for similar lands in South Australia. This last condition was of vital moment, having regard to the continuous exodus of South Australian land-seekers to the eastern colonies. The injury their departure was causing was represented to the British Government by friends of South Australia, and as a result of their appeals, instructions were sent

to the Governors of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, in the year 1838, to raise the sale price of the Government land in their colonies to twelve shillings per acre, which was then the ruling rate in South Australia. Two years later, the price in all the colonies was increased to one pound per acre, and subsequently instructions came that it should be sold by auction and that one pound per acre should be the minimum price.

CHAPTER VI

RETRENCHMENT AND THE RETURN TO PROSPERITY

To replace Colonel Gawler, Captain George Grey, who had distinguished himself as an explorer in West Australia and who was justly deemed to be a man of energy and determination, was chosen by the authorities in England. He entered on his duties as Governor during the year 1841, with an empty Treasury and a revenue altogether inadequate to meet the expenditure. It appeared to him that there was no alternative but to adopt a policy of rigid retrenchment, and this he entered upon without hesitation. He began by reducing the wages of the labourers employed on the Government works, and this he carried to such a drastic extent that he fixed their payment at the rate of one and twopence a day, which would barely suffice to purchase a sufficiency of the commonest food. As there were some two thousand men affected by this policy, their discontent was manifested by threats and disturbances. The Governor, nevertheless, stood firm, and finding his position was unshakable most of the men abandoned their work with the Government to seek employment on the lands of the country, where, though the wages were relatively small, they were far better than those obtainable on the relief works. The land-owners were only too glad to receive those who offered themselves, and thus the services of a great body of men were transferred from unproductive labour to productive employment, which almost at once began to benefit the colony; whilst if many more persons than previously began, as soon as the retrenchment policy was put into force, to leave the colony, those who remained behind were sufficient in number to so vastly increase the wealth of the colony as to far more than

make up for the loss that emigration caused; for few of the departures were from productive work. Fortunately, at this time the season was suitable for obtaining good results from the cultivation of the soil, consequently, the harvest of 1842 was exceptionally good. Thenceforth matters commenced to steadily improve. In that year, too, rich deposits of copper were discovered at Kapunda, about fifty miles northward from the capital, and the opening up of a mine there gave employment to much labour and caused a considerable influx of capital into the colony.

In the year 1845, still richer lodes of copper were discovered at Burra, about fifty miles further north, and when these, in their turn, commenced to be worked an era of undoubted prosperity set in for the province.

In the midst of the joy caused by the recent Burra discoveries Captain Grey was transferred to the Governorship of New Zealand. His departure was viewed with general regret; for though some had not forgiven him for his policy of retrenchment, the people generally remembered the deplorable condition of affairs when he arrived and the vast improvement that had since taken place, and for the change they were satisfied that the Governor's policy was largely responsible.

During Governor Grey's term Captain Sturt set out from Adelaide, in the year 1845, on an exploring expedition towards the north coast and succeeded in reaching to within 150 miles of the centre of the continent. On the way he discovered Cooper's Creek, one of the most important of the rivers of South Australia. Another notable event of this period was the abolition by an Act that came into force in the year 1842 of the Board of Commissioners, which had previously shared much of the powers, that in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land were vested in the Governor. This fact had placed Governor Grey in a much more independent position in ruling the province than his predecessors; but if his powers were in this way greater than theirs he had, by the Act of 1842, to share them, to some extent, with a small Nominee Council of three officials and four others not in receipt of Government salaries. It was intimated by the Imperial authorities when advising the Governor of the new Constitution, that as soon as the colony was in a solvent position, a larger and partly elective Council would be provided for.

CHAPTER VII

PROPOSED COLLECTION OF ROYALTY ON MINERALS ON PRIVATE LANDS

The successor of Captain Grey arrived in the same year that that able ruler retired. He proved to be Colonel Robe, whose governorship was only distinguished by his policy in respect to his attempted imposition of a royalty on minerals obtained on private lands. He was moved to this action by his regret that the Government was reaping no direct advantage from the great production of the copper mines, the sites of which his predecessor had been unable to prevent from passing into the hands of private persons at a price far below their real value. Grey had had no option in the matter. He had to sell the surface of the land at the rate of one pound per acre, a price that would equally have been charged for any other land, whether rich in fertility or metals, or void of every productive quality. Hence, as the area of the Burra Copper Mines was 20,000 acres, that number of pounds sterling was all the Government received for what proved to be some of the richest copper-bearing country on the continent. Governor Robe proposed to remedy this state of affairs by collecting a royalty on all mineral obtained on private lands. He submitted this proposition to the Legislative Council and it obtained the suffrages of the three nominees holding Government positions; whilst the four members who were not receiving Government pay recorded their votes in opposition to it. The addition of the Governor's vote to those of the three supporters of the proposal left the voting equal; whereupon he proposed to exercise his casting vote, but ere he had time to do this, the four non-official members hastily left the Chamber, where there was then no longer a quorum for the transaction of business. Baffled in the Council, the Governor fell back on the theory that the Crown in the British Dominions is the sole landowner and that subjects who considered themselves to be the absolute possessors of estates were actually only perpetual tenants. He, therefore, proposed that as all land belonged to the Crown he, as the Sovereign's representative, could demand payment of a royalty on all minerals obtained from any land held by private persons, irrespective of the title by which they

claimed it. Naturally, all those who had bought land, or who held it by virtue of gift or grant, repudiated both the theory and the policy the Governor proposed to found on it. Their protests were so emphatic and general that they could scarcely be ignored in England, where the matter was finally settled by the recall of the Governor, during the year 1848, and by the virtual annulling of his proposal to collect royalties. His successor, Sir Henry Young, arrived in the same year.

CHAPTER VIII

THE CONSTITUTION OF THE YEAR 1850

With the arrival of the new Governor, the colony was approaching the period when the old system of almost autocratic rule was drawing to a close. Lord Glenelg had promised that, when the population of the province should number fifty thousand inhabitants, a measure of representative government would be granted, and Lord Stanley had added the further condition that this should be conceded when the colony was in a solvent condition. In the second year of Sir Henry Young's governorship both of these conditions were met, and thus the province was ready for the Act of 1850 which granted to South Australia, together with all the eastern colonies, a partially representative Legislature in the shape of a Legislative Council, consisting of one-third of nominated members and of two-thirds of elected representatives. That of South Australia, as it met in the year 1851, contained eight nominees and sixteen elected members.

As happened elsewhere in Australia, the position of the people of the colony was seriously affected by the gold discoveries in New South Wales and Victoria. These discoveries proved such an attraction to the South Australians that so many of them rushed away to the eastern colonies, chiefly to Victoria, that fears were general that the province would be unpeopled; for, in some of the towns, almost the entire male population had vanished. However, as the returns from the gold-fields fell off the South Australian diggers returned to their own colony, a result that was largely brought about by the fact that at that period it was almost impossible to buy agricultural land in

Victoria, whilst the land regulations of South Australia offered special advantages to men of small capital. From this cause, it turned out, in the long run, that the Victorian gold discoveries instead of ruining South Australia were the means of providing thousands of her people with money to buy land in their own colony, whilst Victoria gained very little advantage from the visit of the South Australian diggers. Sir Henry Young left the colony in the year 1854, to take up the duties of Governor of Tasmania.

CHAPTER IX

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT—THE TORRENS ACT

Some months elapsed between Sir Henry Young's departure from the colony and the arrival, during the year 1855, of his successor, Sir Richard O'Donnell. This Governor's term was signalized by the introduction of a new Constitution which provided for the establishment of Responsible Government and a bicameral Legislature consisting of two Chambers—the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The Council was comprised of eighteen members, chosen six at a time by the whole of the electors voting as one constituency; but later on the colony was divided into four electoral districts, and then the number of members was increased to twenty-four. At first the Councillors were elected for twelve years, one-third of them retiring by lot every four years. Later on, the maximum period of membership was fixed at nine years, one-third retiring every three years. The qualification for an elector was the possession of a freehold worth £50 per annum, or a leasehold of the annual value of £20.

The House of Assembly consisted at first of thirty-six, and later on of fifty-two members, apportioned to the number of electorates into which the province was divided. The suffrage was manhood; but that was amended in the year 1894 to include all adults. The powers of the Chambers were in theory equal, save that the Councillors might not originate financial measures, but might suggest amendments of them. Nevertheless the fact that the Ministry, wielding the executive power of

the State, must command a majority in the Assembly, but could live in spite of a hostile majority in the Council, rendered the former body the more important of the two. The Council was distinguished from similar Chambers in the other colonies by the small property qualification required for its electors, and thus it has been easier for representatives of all but the wholly unpropertied classes to obtain seats in this body than in any of the other Upper Chambers of the States.[1]

The Constitution of the colony providing for government on such a basis was from the outset, in several respects, more democratic than those which were conferred about the same period on the eastern states. The first Parliament elected under it deserves to be favourably remembered for a measure it passed that proved to be of lasting benefit. This was what may be justly termed the celebrated Torrens Real Property Act, introduced by Mr. R. R. Torrens, in the year 1858. By it titles for the possession and transfer of landed property may be rendered simple, clear and concise and thus an enormous amount of labour and expense were, and continue to be, saved to the State and to individuals. This useful measure has been enacted throughout Australia and has recently been copied by the Legislatures of several of the States of the American Union.

CHAPTER X

EVENTS PRECEDING AND FOLLOWING PARLIAMENTARY GOVERNMENT

An interesting event, as marking the extension of enterprise, took place in the year 1852, when the first steamer ascended the Murray, which thenceforth began to be the highway by which the pastoral productions of the far western portion of New South Wales flowed towards the middle southern province, and in time proved to be a source of profit to the Adelaide people.

During the year 1860 the colony learned that a valuable copper mine at Wallaroo would add to the wealth that came

[1] When the Commonwealth was established no qualification was required for the election of its Senators other than those needed for members of the House of Representatives.

from those at Kapunda and Burra, and, in the following year, a still richer mine was opened in the country adjacent to the previous discovery.

This period was also marked by a series of inland exploring expeditions. Notable among these was the journey made from Brisbane to Adelaide by Mr. Augustus Gregory, during which he traced the course of the Barcoo and proved its identity with Cooper's Creek.

Moved by the facility with which Gregory had crossed the continent, the South Australian Government offered a reward of £10,000 to the explorer who should succeed in reaching the heart of the continent and from thence the shores of the Indian Ocean. Mr. J. McDouall Stuart, who had already made two exploring expeditions into the interior of South Australia, determined to win the prize. He set out in the month of March, 1860, and safely reached the heart of the continent. There on the summit of a mountain 2000 feet high, which he named Central Mount Stuart, he planted a flag and buried beneath it a bottle containing a record of his achievement. On a second journey, in the following year, he got a hundred miles further north; but he was reluctantly compelled to retrace his footsteps owing to sickness and the hostility of the blacks.

Starting once more from Adelaide, in the succeeding year, he reached the shores of the Indian Ocean at Van Diemen's Gulf. On this successful journey his route was so well chosen that for the greater part of the way scarcely any alteration was made in it when, later on, the surveyors for the overland telegraph line were marking the way for that great undertaking.

Though Stuart had complained of the hostility of the blacks, in his report of his second journey he stated that at one place his party was peacefully received by the tribe, a member of which astonished him by making a masonic sign, and that when Stuart had acknowledged this, the native seemed pleased and patted him on the back. The successful journey of Stuart was soon emulated by that of an expedition made by Mr. John McKinlay, who, in search of the missing Burke and Wills, explorers, crossed the continent from Adelaide to the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria. It was in consequence of her interest in these expeditions that South Australia was, in the year 1863, empowered to take over the control of the large section of Australia that extends from the 138th to the 129th meridian, between the

26th parallel and the waters of the Arafura Sea and of the western portion of the Gulf of Carpentaria. This great area was not to be incorporated in the limits of the province, but remain a separate section, under the name of the Northern Territory.

During the year 1864, South Australia made its first attempt to utilize the Territory, for a party was dispatched by sea to form a settlement at Adam Bay, on the shores of the Indian Ocean, but owing partly to the site chosen being a bad one and to disagreements between the leader of the party and the intending settlers the expedition proved a complete failure.

In the year 1870, the colony undertook the great work of constructing a telegraph line from Adelaide to Port Darwin, on the shores of the Indian Ocean. To that place a cable was laid beneath the sea from Java and when, after two years, the overland line was completed, all Australia was united by the electric telegraph with the northern hemisphere.

When the province undertook the construction of the line across the continent it had but 150,000 people, and much of the country through which the line was to be made was only slightly known through the expeditions of McKinlay and Stuart. The successful construction of the line, which proved to be 1800 miles long, under such circumstances was creditable to the courage and enterprise of the South Australians.

CHAPTER XI

RAILWAYS AND PRIMARY PRODUCTION

Ten years after the completion of her overland telegraph line South Australia commenced another work of interest to all Australia. This was a railway line to the eastern border made expressly with the object of joining with the railways of Victoria, and through them with those of New South Wales and Queensland. This line was completed and the junction made in the year 1889 and was the first railway in Australia that was made with the distinct object of joining two colonies together. Hence, care was taken that the gauge should be the same as that of the line the railway was intended to connect with. In addition to these main, inter-State railways, South Australia has long been

connected by rail and tramway with the silver mining town of Broken Hill, to which the New South Wales Government is also building a line, and when it is finished there will be an alternative connection for those who care for a choice of routes from Sydney to Adelaide.

The year 1887 was noteworthy, also, in the history of the province as that in which it completed the jubilee of its founding. The chief feature of the occasion was an exhibition, held in Adelaide, at which all parts of Australia were represented both by visitors and exhibits.

At that period, South Australia held the leading position as a producer of wheat; but from the following year till 1910 Victoria assumed the first place, which, after three years, she yielded to New South Wales, which will, probably, continue to strongly hold the premier position.

In the production of wines, South Australia has all through held the first position and seems destined to occupy it for an indefinite period.

Her wines, indeed, had long commenced to be favourably known in the other colonies and a demand has been created for them, even in Europe, and this position has steadily grown with the lapse of years.

In pastoral wealth her position is not so good; still, though not a leading one, her wool production has attained to large proportions.

In mining, other than copper, comparatively little is done, and the prosperity of the State has never been greatly advanced by the gold, tin and coal which, in other States, have formed substantial resources of employment and wealth. In fact, the gratifying position of economic progress to which the State has attained is much more due to the attention that has been given by a steady and industrious population to the business of production from the soil, than from any, or all of the other resources of the State.

Having a great field for agriculture and pastoral development, in large areas of still unused fertile land, it may reasonably be hoped that, as the years roll by, the returns from the landed industries will steadily increase. One obstacle alone stands in the way of such increase being rapid and constant, and that is: the unfortunate want, in a considerable portion of the country, of a sufficiently ample rainfall.

Despite this serious drawback, the Middle Southern State has every reason to be well satisfied with the progress that has been made and to look forward hopefully and confidently to coming years as a time when her people will continuously have a great and solid part in maintaining the strength and prosperity of the Australian nation.

From the inception of the Federal movement that began to slowly rise into the political air, about the year 1880, South Australia was represented in every Australian Conference or Convention, whose object was to promote some form of federal union, and generally by men of pronounced ability, whose influence in these assemblages was as apparent as it was always effective and valuable.

The colony actively joined in establishing the Federal Council, which was the precursor of the larger form of union that was to come, and at each of the Referenda that were to decide the fate of the Bill of the Convention, the electors of the State gave a great majority in favour of its adoption.

From the establishment of Federation, South Australia has continued to send some of her ablest politicians to the Commonwealth Parliament, and in one of these—Mr. C. C. Kingston, whose career, to the national loss of Australia, was terminated by death—she had a representative of commanding ability. Death has, in truth, not spared the State; for, in a brief part of her Federal life, two other of her representatives: Messrs. Holder and Batcheler, were removed by its stern, inexorable decree from distinguished posts in the National Parliament.

CHAPTER XII

EVENTS FROM THE CENTENNIAL YEAR TO THE PRESENT DAY

The Constitution of South Australia was amended during the year 1894 to provide for Adult Suffrage, and in this the province was the first of the Australian colonies to follow the example of New Zealand. It has, in fact, been the pioneer in other measures of a democratic character, and owing to the wider suffrage that has prevailed in the election of the members of the Legislative

Council, than that which obtained in other States where the Council is elective, there has for a considerable time been a fair proportion of Labour Councillors.

In the Assembly, members belonging to the same party are in a majority and were so, to a smaller extent, in the Parliament before the last one.[1] Hence, at the present time, the State is under Labour Government—as, indeed, are all the States, except Victoria.

In like manner, a majority of the representatives of the State, in the Federal Parliament, are of the Labour party. In particular in the Senate, this party holds all the seats except one, which is held by a gentleman who was elected by the joint Labour and Liberal vote.

The senatorial results are, it may be added, a better indication of the opinion of the majority of the voters, at a given time, than are those for the House of Representatives; for, in the one case, a candidate, to be elected, must receive the approval of a majority of the whole of the voters; in the other, special interests in special districts may successfully operate in a different direction. Hence when a State has practically all of its Senators of one party, it is not difficult to divine the opinion held by a majority of the voters. The last amendment made in the Constitution of the State was effected in the year 1914, when the number of members in both of the Houses was increased.

Apart from the events of local interests, South Australia performed one of a national character, in the year 1911, when she finally handed over to the Commonwealth the control of the Northern Territory, which, for nearly half a century, the State had, generally, well and fairly administered. It continued in the same spirit, by displaying a readiness to assist the Commonwealth with land and other facilities for the undertaking of providing for the great railway that is shortly to connect the western railways of Australia with the lines that extend to the shores of the Pacific. This national work—the only railway in Australia that was undertaken from purely national motives—was formally commenced by the turning of the first sod by the Governor-General, at its eastern starting-point, in the South Australian town of Port Augusta—a ceremony which took place in the year 1912. If for nothing else, this event should mark the

[1] These and the immediately succeeding remarks apply to the years preceding 1916.

year as one of the dates of our history. A still greater one, it may well be hoped, will arrive at an early period, for as these lines are written the great railway is rapidly approaching the period of completion. The other links in the long chain that now stretches to-day from Port Augusta to the far west of Central Queensland and which will soon reach to the vicinity of the Gulf of Carpentaria, were, as we have seen, the junction of the New South Wales and Victorian lines at Albury in the year 1883; that of those of South Australia and Victoria, at Murray Bridge, in the year 1889, and that of those of Queensland and New South Wales at Wallangarra during the year 1888.

NEW ZEALAND

CHAPTER I

ITS TEMPORARY POLITICAL CONNECTION WITH AUSTRALIA

From their first settlement by Europeans, till well on towards the middle of the nineteenth century, the islands forming the present Dominion of New Zealand were under the control of the Government of New South Wales. Thus their early history is closely connected with that of Australia, and, indeed, up to the time of their removal from the control of New South Wales, the narrative of the events of their discovery and settlement cannot be severed from the sequence of events in the history of the continent.

New Zealand mainly consists of three islands called, respectively, the North, South, and Stewart Island. Of these, the South Island is the largest; whilst Stewart Island is greatly the smallest. They have no geographical connection with Australia, for the Pacific, which surrounds them, rolls broad and deep for 1250 miles between them and the shores of the continent, and whilst they are geologically a recent addition to the countries of the world, Australia is one of the oldest lands on the face of the earth. To this geological difference must be added the facts that the vegetation and native inhabitants are quite distinct from those of Australia. In the latter respect New Zealand has decidedly the advantage, for whilst the Australian black stands on a very low plane of the world's population, New Zealand, at the time it was first visited by Europeans, was occupied by a strong and almost handsome people, who but for their ferocious cannibal practices might have been ranked among the highest types of uncivilized men. These people called themselves "Maories," that is to say, natives. They are not believed to be the aboriginal inhabitants of the country, but to have migrated there from the Hawaiian Islands, about the middle of the four-

teenth century. They have a tradition that they brought with them from their ancestral home, which they called Hawaiki, the dog and a species of rat which abounded in the islands at the time when they were first visited by Europeans. As these creatures were, with the exception of a small species of bat, the sole representatives of the animal kingdom that were discovered in New Zealand by the earliest European visitors, it seems certain that when the Maories arrived from Hawaii, they found a land in which a four-footed beast did not exist. Of the two kinds of animals, they brought with them, one has long since become extinct; for the fierce Norway rats which arrived in European vessels made such incessant war on the New Zealand rodents that in a very short time the native species ceased to exist.

Though without quadrupeds, New Zealand boasted, till about two hundred years ago, a gigantic bird, called the moa, which, like the emu of Australia, was nearly without wings. It far exceeded in size any species of bird existing in the rest of the world. It is supposed that the war made on it by the Maories caused the destruction of the whole of the species and it is therefore now classed among the extinct monsters of a vanished age.

CHAPTER II

THE DISCOVERY OF THE ISLANDS—TASMAN AND COOK

Like Tasmania, New Zealand owes its discovery to Abel Jansz Tasman, who, on the 13th of December, 1642, met the west coast of the South Island close to where it terminates at the channel which divides the northern from the southern island.

Tasman's experiences of the natives were far from satisfactory; for, when anchored in an inlet, which is supposed to be that known as Massacre Bay, one of his boats passing between his two vessels was attacked by the savages in war canoes. Before he could bring the guns of his ships to successfully bear on these assailants, they had killed several of the boat's crew. Subsequently Tasman met with another unpleasant evidence of the hostility of the Maories. This time it was from those of the group of islets which he called the Three Kings and which lie

just north of the point, at the north-western extremity of the North Island. This headland he designated Cape Maria Van Diemen, after the daughter of Anthony Van Diemen, the Governor of Java. This Governor it was who gave New Zealand the name it bears, which was derived from the Dutch province of Zeeland. It was his substitution for the title that Tasman had given to his discovery, namely, Staaten Island.

Satisfied that no intercourse was possible with the fierce New Zealanders, Tasman sailed away for ever from what he considered inhospitable shores, and after his departure no white man saw the shores of New Zealand for about one hundred and twenty-seven years. Then, however, an expedition arrived which was to explore the islands far more thoroughly than Tasman had ever attempted to do. This was that under Captain Cook, who arrived on the east coast of the North Island on the 6th of October, 1769.

This renowned navigator proved that what Tasman had taken to be one great island was divided into two by a strait which received his name. And he separately took possession of each of the islands for Great Britain.

After some failures, he succeeded in entering into friendly relations with numbers of the natives, to whom he successfully introduced the pigs, poultry and potatoes that were to become a substantial part of their food. Cook was so well satisfied with the islands that he made several subsequent visits to them.[1]

Cook's fourth visit, which was made in the year 1774, was connected with a horrible event; though for this he was in no way responsible. It will be remembered from the account given of Van Diemen's Land that Captain Furneaux, in the *Adventure*, had got separated from the other vessels of Cook's squadron during stormy weather, and that after spending some time on the Van Diemen's Land coast, he started for Queen Charlotte's Sound in New Zealand, where he expected to meet Cook; but when he arrived in the inlet he found that that navigator had left. Nevertheless, Furneaux determined to remain in the sound to refresh his crew. After staying there about a month on friendly terms with the Maories, he one day sent a boat's crew consisting of ten men to gather wild vegetables on shore; but when evening came the men did not return. An armed party was, therefore, landed to look for them and after some time dis-

[1] For further particulars of Cook's first voyage see main narrative.

covered a number of Maories running from the shore. On proceeding to the spot whence the natives had fled, the search party was horrified to behold a number of baskets filled with human flesh, among which were several tatooed hands that were recognized as belonging to some of the sailors, while close by was a quantity of clothes that were known to be those that had been worn by the officer who had commanded the missing boat's crew. Such were all the traces of the unfortunate men that Furneaux could discover. He remained in the inlet several days after this sad occurrence and then proceeded to follow the orders which Cook had left behind for him.

Captain Cook must have been very fond of New Zealand or its people, for even four visists to its shores did not satisfy him, and so, during the year 1775, he sailed for the islands again, and on that his fifth and last visit he once more anchored in Queen Charlotte's Sound.

OTHER VISITORS

Though Cook was undoubtedly the first European navigator who followed Tasman to the shores of New Zealand, he was but a few weeks ahead of a French explorer, named De Surville, who arrived at Doubtless Bay on the coast of the North Island, in the middle of the month of December, 1769. This was, in fact, at the time when Cook was exploring the coast of the South Island. De Surville only remained about a fortnight in the bay and made no attempt to explore the country, and though he had been treated in a friendly manner by the natives, an unfounded suspicion that they had behaved badly to some of his men who were sick on shore caused him to burn their village and to carry their chief away a prisoner. Some weeks after he had perpetrated this cruelty, he was drowned in the surf at Callao, in Peru, when he was going ashore in a small boat to seek for assistance for his crew, who were suffering from disease. About eighteen months after De Surville's visit, another Frenchman, Captain Marion du Fresne, arrived on the west coast of the North Island, from Tasmania, proceeding into the Bay of Islands, where for several weeks he remained, on the most intimate terms with the Maories; but at the end of that period, owing to the fact that the French had interfered with things made sacred by a ceremony known as the tapu, the natives

resolved to kill them. With this object in view they invited Marion and his people to a great banquet. Fortunately, only sixteen of his officers and men accompanied Marion to the shore, for the moment the Frenchmen stepped out of their boats each one of them was set upon by six New Zealanders and slaughtered. Their bodies were then cut up and devoured by the savages. Captain Crozet, who succeeded to the command on the death of Marion, revenged the massacre and terrible end of his countrymen by a great slaughter of the natives and by burning their villages.

When an account of the fate of Marion and his people had arrived in Europe and when Cook had told also the story of the awful end of Furneaux's missing boat's crew and had added that the Maories gloried in being devourers of men, people shuddered with horror, and for nearly nine years no attempt was made to have further intercourse with islands whose people were considered to be a race of savage cannibals.

The next visitor was Captain George Vancouver, in the ship *Discovery*, who, accompanied by Captain Broughton, in the *Chatham*, anchored in Dusky Bay, on the west coast of the South Island, on the 2nd of November, 1791. He remained till the 21st of the same month, when he and Broughton sailed for Tahiti. Parting company during a gale, Broughton discovered the group that are known from his ship as the Chatham Islands.

About twelve months later, or on the 5th of November, 1792, Captain Raven, in the *Britannia*, entered Facile Harbour, on the west coast, and there landed a party of men, with the intent to establish a sealing station. After accommodation had been provided for the sealers, the *Britannia* departed and did not return till the closing days of the following year, when the men that had been left were found to be safe and well. This is the first instance known to history in which alone and unaided a party of Europeans remained for a period on the shores of New Zealand, and yet an event that might well have imperilled the safety of the men on shore occurred during their stay there. Being anxious to obtain the services of a couple of Maories to teach the community at Norfolk Island how to utilize the flax plant that grew there abundantly, Governor Phillip despatched a vessel to New Zealand, during the year 1793, to request some of the natives to go as instructors to the island, but the officer in command of the ship took advantage of a peaceable visit to

his vessel of some Maori chiefs to forcibly seize and carry them away. Fortunately a just man, in Captain King, was Governor of Norfolk Island at the time, and when he had learnt from the chiefs the story of their removal from their country he promised to return them, and this promise he faithfully kept.

Apart from these two visits, the year 1793 was marked also by the arrival of the Spanish ships *Descubrierta* and *Atrevida*. Their commanders gave several Spanish names to places in and near Doubtful and Dusky bays and then departed.

CHAPTER III

ATTEMPTS AT COLONIZATION

Long before the end of the eighteenth century the islands began to be visited by whalers, some of whom deserted from their vessels to live with the natives. These men were called Pakeha Maories, a name which meant foreigners made natives. They taught the Maories the use of fire-arms, a knowledge which the tribes soon made such a destructive use of in their tribal wars that it is estimated that within twenty years after the introduction of fire-arms, twenty thousand of the natives were slain.

About the end of the year 1814, Messrs. Kendall and Hall arrived in the Bay of Islands, on a mission of a nobler kind; for they came to endeavour to convert the savage islanders from war and bloodshed to the gentle tenets of the Christian faith. They formed, after a while, a mission station at Rangihoua, on the Bay of Islands; but it was long before any result was visible from their efforts or from those who followed them in the same good work.

The first attempt to form a colonizing settlement was made by an association in London, known as the New Zealand Company, which despatched Captain Herd in charge of some intending colonists, during the year 1825.

The settlers were landed on the shores of the Gulf of Houraki, during the same year, and proceeded to occupy for the company portions of land at Hokianga, Manakau, and near the Thames River; but, soon after, they fled from the country through fear of the Maories.

A settlement having grown up, owing to the frequent visits of whalers, at a place in the Bay of Islands that is now known as Russell, a British resident, in the person of Mr. Busby, was stationed there, during the year 1833.

THE FOUNDING OF WELLINGTON AND PERMANENT SETTLEMENT

After several attempts to form fresh companies had failed, one known as the New Zealand Company, and which was the second of that name, was established and sent out a body of settlers under the control of Colonel Wakefield. This party of colonists, on the 22nd of January, 1840, arrived in Port Nicholson and there founded the future city of Wellington, which, within twelve months of their landing, contained some twelve hundred inhabitants.

In the following year the Company formed other settlements at New Plymouth and Nelson. But ere either of them commenced to exist the Governor of New South Wales established a dependent settlement at Auckland and sent Captain Hobson to rule over it, and when in the year 1841 New Zealand was completely separated from the control of New South Wales, Hobson received the appointment of Governor over the whole of the new colony, though his authority in the settlements formed by the New Zealand Company was exceedingly small.

By a Scotch Company a settlement was formed at Otago, in the year 1848 and, owing to this fact, the people of that province are mostly Scotch, or of Scotch origin.

A year after the formation of the Otago colony the Church of England established a settlement at Christchurch and, later on, other colonies were formed at Hawke's Bay and Marlborough. The various settlements formed at these places received the name of the Six Provinces of New Zealand. They established local governments which eventually amounted to nine in number, and for a considerable period their Provincial Councils possessed most of the powers of independent legislatures. At length, however, in the year 1853, a Constitution arrived in New Zealand which authorized the establishment of a General Parliament which was to consist of representatives from all the Provinces, and as no check was placed upon the powers of the new body, it began gradually, after its establishment, on the 24th of May,

1854, to take steps to limit and reduce the powers of the Provincial Councils. This spirit continued to grow till finally, in the year 1874, the General Government passed a Bill through Parliament which abolished the North Island Councils and, two years later, by a similar measure, the Council of the South Island also ceased to exist.

CONSTITUTIONAL PROGRESS

The various steps to full constitutional freedom may be thus related :

From the 3rd of May, 1841, New Zealand formed a Crown Colony governed by an Executive, consisting of the Governor and three other gentlemen. This system was modified by the establishment on the 27th of May, 1854, of a legislature consisting of a Legislative Council, and a representative body known as the General Assembly. In this system of government, the Executive Council was not responsible to the Legislature. However, this was altered, two years later, when Responsible Government was conferred on the colony, which from the final abolition of the last of the Provincial Councils, in the year 1876, has been under one Parliament, which consists of a Nominee Legislative Council and a House of Representatives. The latter, since the year 1893, has been elected on the basis of adult suffrage —a franchise which New Zealand was the first country in the southern hemisphere to introduce, even as it was in the case of Old Age Pensions and of a number of laws that fully protect the workers in industrial enterprises from abuses in their hours of labour or in the amounts of the payment for their services.

Such legislation quickly attracted the attention of the Australian colonies which, in some cases, followed in the track of New Zealand and even proceeded to improve on its example.

In most of the legislation that attracted this widespread attention, New Zealand has mainly to thank Sir Richard Seddon and his successor, Mr. Balance. As in Australia, the Triennial system obtains for the House of Representatives.

Four of the seats in it are held and must be held, unless the Constitution be altered, by Maories or those whom they choose.

The European members number 76.

The members of the Council, previous to the year 1891, were chosen for life. Since then the tenure of the seats in this body has been limited to a term of seven years.

The seat of government has been at Wellington since the month of February, 1865; whereas up to that time it had been at Auckland.

On the 26th of September, 1907, Wellington ceased to be the metropolis of a country described as a colony and assumed the more imposing rôle of the capital of the New Zealand Dominion —a title that had been granted by the King to the islands colony by proclamation a fortnight before.

CHAPTER IV

WARS WITH THE MAORIES

Though none of the Australian colonies were established, or continued to exist, without troubles with the aboriginals that frequently ended in bloodshed, yet, owing to the utter inability of the Australian blacks to cope with Europeans, they never attempted to make any regular resistance to the advance of the whites. In New Zealand the case was different, for there the colonists met a brave and stalwart race that would not suffer wrongs with impunity. Hence, when the Maories found that their rights to their lands which were to them an almost sacred property were being disregarded they began to consider how they could best resist. The first serious trouble about land began in the year 1843, when after the Maories had positively refused to sell certain ground near Cloudy Bay to Colonel Wakefield, he sent a party of surveyors to measure the land there. Thereupon the Maories pulled up the surveyors' pegs and threw down their huts. When the news of this action arrived in Nelson, Colonel Wakefield's brother procured a warrant for the arrest of the natives who had interfered with the surveying. A large party of the friends and sympathisers of the Wakefields proceeded to attempt to enforce the warrant by arresting the natives. But, as might be supposed, the Maories were not disposed to allow themselves to be captured for doing that which they considered they had a right to do. Hence, when the Wakefields' people came across the natives they were defied by them. In the midst of the dispute one of the Europeans fired a shot which killed the wife of a Maori chief and thereupon the whole

of the natives poured a volley in amongst the Europeans and continued to fire till the Englishmen fled leaving most of their number dead upon the field. Because the Government saw that in this matter the Europeans were clearly in the wrong they took no steps to punish the Maories; but from the day of the encounter over the Cloudy Bay lands, a bad feeling grew up between the whites and the natives and in less than two years this feeling ended in a fierce attack on a settlement of the whites on the shores of the Bay of Islands. Though this place contained a body of soldiers and sailors and was partly fortified, it was captured by the Maories. By this action a war was commenced, which lasted nine months. As it proceeded there was much loss of life, both on the side of the natives and on that of the whites; but it finally ended in the complete submission of the tribes in arms. Scarcely had the troubles near the Bay of Islands been appeased when the mutual aversions of the whites and Maories broke out in the south of the North Island into hostilities which continued for nearly a year. After that there was peace between the two races till the year 1859, when owing to the continual encroachments and attempted encroachments of the colonists on the lands of the natives, the latter once more resorted to arms to defend their possessions. The Governor, Colonel Gore Browne, proclaimed martial law in the district of Taranaki, an action that was translated to the Maories as an invitation to them to begin fighting. This was a thing that they were not at all averse from, and so they started with great willingness to construct pahs, or fortified camps, in the bush, sending as soon as they had finished these, invitations to General Pratt who was in command of the British and New Zealand forces to come and attack them. This Pratt did; but advancing on one of the Maori positions in close order, his troops, after suffering severe loss, were compelled to retire; whereupon the general decided to approach the pah, by the usual zigzag trenches used in approaching fortifications in European wars. But this style of fighting was far too slow for the Maories and, under a flag of truce, they offered to complete the saps for their enemy so that the fighting might be the more quickly resumed.

Nevertheless, the tribes were quite as ready to make peace as war and, on the promise of Sir George Grey, whohad come to relieve Colonel Browne of the governorship, that a block of land the Europeans had seized from the natives should be restored,

Wiremu Kingi, the chief of the Taranaki natives, agreed to make peace. Unfortunately, Sir George Grey's ministers were not ready to return the land, and after some, to them, irritating delays the Waikato tribe took up the cause of the natives and prepared for war. They strengthened a strongly built pah at Rangariri, which was attacked by the British and New Zealand troops, and, after repeated assaults and much loss to the assailing troops, the position was captured. At Orakau, another portion of the same tribe made a valiant defence against an assaulting force of four times its strength, and when the position was rendered untenable by cannon the defenders marched out, broke through a portion of the attacking line and fought on against their pursuers for six miles, when the suviving remnant escaped across a river and into the forest beyond. By these engagements the power of the gallant Waikatos perished, and peace reigned in their lands.

Still, the war was far from concluded, for the Tauranga tribe, located near the Bay of Plenty, made a desperate stand at what was known as the Gate Pah. There the assailing force was driven back with great loss; but abandoning their position during the night, the Maori warriors were attacked at Te Ranga by the same force they had repulsed at the Gate Pah and were there overwhelmed, and the remnant that survived laid down their arms.

Meanwhile another serious trouble had been preparing amongst the Taranaki natives, who were aroused by a superstition known as the Hau Hau; but they had to deal with a different commander, for Sir George Grey was leading the troops against them, and on the 21st of July, 1865, he captured their pah at Wereoa without loss. With this event, the power of the Maories was finally crushed and, thenceforth, their resistance ceased for good.

During the war thus happily ended, the whole of the Imperial troops at that time stationed in the Australian colonies were, with two regiments recruited in Australia, despatched to aid the forces in New Zealand, where apart from the British and Australian regiments, there were no less than 9600 local militia in arms. The total strength of the united units made a formidable force and one that far outnumbered the enemy.

By the Australians who served in this war good service was rendered, and they are distinguished as the first of their people who volunteered for service in a war beyond the seas.

Since 1866, the Maories have settled down to be peaceful citizens, living on the friendliest terms with the whites, who at present so vastly exceed them in numbers that they form but an inconsiderable fraction of the population, and this proportion is steadily diminishing. Many of them have intermarried with the Europeans, and as this proceeds it is only a question of a limited time when, as a pure race, the Maories will be as extinct in the land as the gigantic moas that roamed through the islands when their savage forefathers first appeared on the coast.

The Maories, it might be added, have not only been on the most amicable terms with the whites, but they even assisted as valuable units of the New Zealand forces that went to the aid of Great Britain in the South African war and, at the present time, a considerable number of their gallant men are incorporated in the numerous battalions of Dominion troops that have been operating against the enemy in Turkey, France and Africa. The highest compliment that could be paid to them is to state that the Maories are the only non-white race in existence who are free to enter the Australian Commonwealth.

CHAPTER V

THE SOIL, CLIMATE, PRODUCTS AND THE FUTURE

All New Zealand is of volcanic origin and this is evidenced in the North Island, at the present day, by frequent earthquakes and occasional eruptions of mud volcanoes; whilst boiling springs give further and constant proof of the existence of subterranean fires. As a result of its origin, the soil of the Dominion is generally characterized by great fertility. With a good rainfall and a climate that, according to latitude, bears a marked resemblance to correspondingly situated parts of Great Britain, the rich lands of the islands produce to great advantage all the useful and ornamental plants and trees of the British Islands.

Yielding abundant crops, and possessed of luxuriant pastures, New Zealand is in many respects an ideal land for the farmer and grazier and at a comparatively early period of its history, as a British settlement, it began to export wool, butter and frozen

meats to the parent country. Now its shipment of these productions attains to proportions that make the Dominion one of the leading sources of supply of the British markets.

Owing to the climate being much cooler than that of the vast bulk of Australia, the Dominion produces some of the crops of the colder, temperate zones to better advantage than the Australian States and with an adaptation of the tariff of the two Commonwealths, to accord with this, it may be hoped that the already considerable exchange of productions will largely increase. In the meantime, Australians view with satisfaction every growth of the industry of the New Zealanders, for, in a large degree, the interests of the two peoples have much in common and it is the hope of every good citizen of the greater country that, whilst each of the two Commonwealths shall retain complete autonomy, some means may be adopted which, in great matters of national moment, will bind the two peoples in a close alliance by which the full defensive resources of the one will be, under joint control, available for the defence of the other.

On the part of New Zealand it may be added that in all the matters leading up to the establishment of Federation in Australia, the Dominion was a sympathetic onlooker and, in several instances, an active assistant.

Since 1900 the two countries have worked hand in hand in all matters of a common interest, and at the present moment the blood of many hundreds of gallant New Zealanders has mingled with that of the host of Australians who rest with them in their hero graves far off by the red-dyed beach of Anzac and in France.

VICTORIA

CHAPTER I

ITS POSITION AND LIMITS—THE DISCOVERY OF PORT PHILLIP

The section of Australia that is known as Victoria occupies the south-eastern portion of the continent, and though it is by far the smallest of the political divisions of the mainland, its territory is so well suited to settlement, through the general fertility of its soil and the extent of its rainfall, that it supports more people in proportion to its area than any other of the States of Australia. It is bounded on the north by New South Wales, from which it is separated by the Murray River and by a line drawn from Cape Howe to the head of that river; on the west by South Australia, from which it is divided by the line of the 141st meridian; on the east and south-east by the Pacific Ocean, and on the south by the Bass Straits and the Southern Ocean.

The area embraced within these limits is 87,884 square miles.

A part of the Victorian coast near Ram's Head was the first point of the Australian coast sighted by Captain Cook on his voyage of discovery in the year 1770; but, after his passing glance, nothing further was seen of any portion of the shores of the colony till the year 1797, when Mr. Bass, who had set out from Sydney to determine whether there was a channel between Australia and Van Diemen's Land or not, sailed within sight of land from Cape Howe to Western Port. Three years later, Lieutenant Grant, in the brig *Lady Nelson*, when on his way from England to Sydney, discovered and named Capes Northumberland, Bridgewater, and Otway. Following the trend of the coast from the last-mentioned point, he saw, before reaching Cape Schank, near which Bass sailing from the opposite direction had stopped, a break in the coast-line indicating an inlet. He endeavoured to enter through this opening, but was deterred

by the broken water, apparently extending across the entrance. On his arrival in Sydney, he persuaded Governor King that a more thorough examination than he had been able to make might show that the entrance he had observed between Capes Otway and Schank might result in the discovery of an important harbour. Accordingly, the Governor despatched Lieutenant Murray, who had succeeded Grant, in the command of the *Lady Nelson*, to examine the coast between the two capes, and there Murray found that the opening referred to by Grant really existed; but he also was cautious about attempting to take his vessel through the broken water and instead of doing so he, on the 1st of January, 1802, sent his chief officer, Mr. Bowen, in the ship's launch to effect a passage through the heads and into the expected harbour beyond. On the 5th of the month, Bowen returned with the information that there was a deep channel nearly a mile and a half in width which led through the broken water into a great nearly land-locked bay. On learning this, Murray sailed his vessel into the inlet and anchored off the site of the present quarantine station. He called the bay Port King, after the ruling Governor; but this honour King modestly declined and renamed the bay Port Phillip in memory of his former chief, the first Governor of New South Wales. Lieutenant Murray remained in Port Phillip for several weeks, during which he made little attempt to make a thorough exploration of the bay; but he reported that he had seen good country on its western shores and this portion of his account was, later on, instrumental in causing an expedition to be sent to form a settlement on the shores of the port; but, unfortunately for its success, the attempt was not made where Murray had stated he had seen the good land. Murray shortly afterwards left Port Phillip, but before he finally departed from the coast, he landed a party at Cape Patterson, hoisted the Union Jack and formally took possession of the whole of the territory surrounding Port Phillip and Western Port for the United Kingdom.

Six weeks afterwards Captain Baudin visited the bay in one of the French ships engaged at that period in exploring the coast and four weeks later, Captain Flinders, in the *Investigator*, also entered, thinking as he passed in, that he was entering a portion of Western Port. He anchored off the present village of Sorrento and started in one of the ship's boats on an exploring expedition round the coast. In the course of this exploration he named

Indented Head and Station Peak, and landing at the head of Corio Bay made an examination of the surrounding country. The results of this exploration were unfortunately not forwarded then to Governor King, and as Flinders was captured by the French on his way to England and was detained by them at the Mauritius for six years, the fruits of his examination of Port Phillip were not available till after the termination of his detention. Hence Governor King had to rely solely on the account that Murray had left of the bay ; but happily that report, as far as it went, was a favourable one.

CHAPTER II

THE DISCOVERY OF THE YARRA—THE ESTABLISHMENT AND ABANDONMENT OF A PENAL SETTLEMENT

In consequence of the favourable account left by Lieutenant Murray, Governor King determined to have a thorough investigation made of the country immediately surrounding Port Phillip. He therefore, on the 20th of January, 1803, sent Lieutenant C. Robins, in the sloop *Cumberland*, with instructions to walk right round the shores of the bay and to survey them as he proceeded. For the latter work he was accompanied by Mr. Surveyor Grimes and a staff of assistants. The work of exploration and survey was commenced at a hillock which Lieutenant Murray had named Arthur's Seat, after an eminence in Scotland which he thought it resembled. This position was near the entrance of the bay to the ocean on the eastern side and by strictly carrying out the Governor's instructions it was inevitable that any rivers flowing into the bay would sooner or later be discovered by the explorers. Thus it was that as the surveyors rounded from the east to the north they came to the Yarra River, and this stream Robins at once resolved should be explored. In pursuit of that determination the river was ascended to the site of the present city of Melbourne. Five days were spent exploring the neighbourhood with the result that the country was set down as well adapted for the purposes of settlement. The boat journey up the river was then resumed till further progress was stopped by the shallowness of the stream at what

was afterwards to be known as Dight's Fall. Returning from there to the mouth of the river, the survey of the shores of the bay was continued without interruption right round the western side to the entrance, and this important work was finished on the 26th of February. Having thus satisfactorily completed his task, Lieutenant Robins departed from Port Phillip.

The report of his explorations would in all probability have prevented the failure of another expedition had it been received in London in time; but it arrived some time after the Imperial authorities had, on the strength of Lieutenant Murray's report, despatched a colonizing community to Port Phillip. This expedition was in charge of Lieutenant-Colonel D. Collins, who bore with him the commission of Lieutenant-Governor of the territory in which his settlement was to be established. The expedition left Great Britain on the 27th of April, 1803, in H.M.S. *Calcutta* and the transport *Ocean*, and entered Port Phillip on the 7th of October of the same year. It comprised, as it arrived, 299 male convicts, 16 married women, a few free settlers, 50 officers and men of the marines and 15 civil officials.

Colonel Collins who had from the outset been opposed to forming a settlement on the shores of Port Phillip, made, in the first instance, little attempt to find a suitable locality for his community and landed on the 16th of October, on Point Nepean, in the vicinity of the future suburb of Sorrento, which was about as poor a place as could well have been found, to establish a colony that was expected to mainly depend on the products of the soil. Later on, the Government endeavoured to make some amends for the absence of care he had shown in this matter. He therefore sent Lieutenant Tuckey, with two boats' crews, to explore the shores of the bay for a more fitting site; but after a long search in the course of which his men were attacked by the blacks, Tuckey returned with a most disheartening account of the country he had seen. In consequence of this and his own experiences Collins wrote to Governor King reporting that the Port Phillip country was wholly unsuitable for useful occupation and solicited leave to remove the settlement to Van Diemen's Land. King gave the desired permission and with great satisfaction Collins made preparations for an immediate departure. With one portion of the community he left for the banks of the Derwent on the 30th of January, 1804; whilst the remainder of its components was removed on the 18th of May.

Collins had, nevertheless, been instructed by Governor King to leave a small party at some point on the shores of Port Phillip; but had probably designedly omitted to attend to this order. Thus the result of the first attempt to form a settlement in the neighbourhood of Port Phillip ended in absolute failure and the accounts that were spread by Collins or his followers of the barrenness of the land were so widely accepted that for years to come the Port Phillip country was carefully avoided.

Though the shores of Port Phillip were thus abandoned, all who had landed with Collins on the Sorrento sands did not depart when the community was removed, for three prisoners had succeeded in escaping into the bush. For some time the fugitives kept together; but when at length their provisions were almost exhausted two of them grew faint-hearted and resolved to return to convict bondage. These two men, after parting with their companion, were never afterwards heard of; but he, continuing his way with determination, was after more than a generation had passed away to be found by his countrymen living in health and security.

CHAPTER III

THE FIRST SETTLEMENT ON VICTORIAN SOIL

It was twenty years after the removal of the penal settlement that Collins had attempted to form on the sands of Port Phillip before any attempt was made to give further attention to the deserted country, and then it was more with the idea of finding an overland route to Western Port where it was contemplated to form a military post, than with the hope of discovering land for settlement in south-eastern Australia. About this time, as narrated elsewhere, Messrs. Hovell and Hume, the former being an experienced sailor and, as such, capable of accurately determining latitude and longitude; and the latter, a well-qualified bushman, were induced by the hope of some reward from the Governor and also by an inclination for exploring to endeavour to reach the sea-coast at Western Port. Having received hardly any assistance from the Government in the fitting out of their expedition, the explorers set out, on the 17th October, 1824,

from the grazing farm which Hume had established near Lake George, and after an adventurous journey, succeeded on the 16th of December in reaching the shores of Corio Bay on the western side of Port Phillip. Of much of the land extending from the neighbourhood of the bay for a considerable distance northward, Hume gave a most glowing account. This circumstance influenced Governor Brisbane to hasten his intended occupation of Western Port, near which he was assured by the reports of Hovell and Hume, the good country they had seen would be found; for both of the explorers had returned to Sydney quite convinced, for some time, that the country that had impressed them so favourably was located around the shores of that inlet.

Accordingly, on the 24th of November, 1826, the Governor despatched H.M.S. *Fly*, under Captain Weatherall, R.N., and the brig *Dragon*, bearing between them twenty prisoners, as many soldiers, and a few women to occupy Western Port; but the locality was found to be very unsuitable, and after existing with trouble till January, 1828, the port was closed and its people removed. Such was the result of the second and last attempt, under Government auspices, to form a settlement within the bounds of what was one day to be the State of Victoria.

CHAPTER IV

THE HENTY BROTHERS SETTLE ON PORTLAND BAY

Whilst two attempts had been made by the Government without success to form settlements, far other was the result of private endeavours. The first of these was that made by the Henty Brothers, who, being in search of land, found, after many vicissitudes, a place with all they were seeking for in the way of good country, on the shores of Portland Bay. Their settlement there commenced on the 19th of November, 1834, and by their industry a considerable area of land was put under cultivation, a whaling station was established and they began to grow rich in crops, stock, buildings and improvements; but they had committed the offence of taking up lands in the wilderness without official consent, and for this in time their enterprise and industry

were to be severely penalised. The time was to come, indeed, when the Henty Brothers, after wearisome delays and expenses, were to be compelled to purchase from the Government the improvements they had made and the lands they had won from the virgin wilderness. But this, in the year 1835, was yet to come and they continued for some months after the previously related visit of Sir Thomas Mitchell to be the undisturbed and sole residents of the white race in the great expanse of territory that lies between the Murrumbidgee River and the Southern Ocean.

CHAPTER V

PIONEERS OF PORT PHILLIP—BATMAN

Not long after the establishment of the Hentys at Portland Bay a movement began in Van Diemen's Land that was to originate the real peopling of the south-eastern portion of Australia. About this time, the report of the Hovell and Hume expedition was read by a settler in the island colony named John Batman, who was a native of Parramatta, near Sydney. Batman, who was looking for fresh pasturage for his increasing flocks, was induced by reading the report of the two explorers to attempt to form a settlement on the lands near Port Phillip which they had so favourably described. With that object in view, he formed a colonizing association that comprised amongst its members the nephew of Mr. George Arthur, the Lieutenant-Governor of the island-colony, and five of its officials. The Governor was, himself, privately in favour of the objects of the association ; though publicly he professed to be opposed to the enterprise ; for it was not then the policy of Governor Arthur's chiefs in England to encourage settlements that might prove a refuge for escaped convicts and which, on account of their remoteness, could not be readily controlled from the centres where the Government forces were stationed. However, with or without official sanction or approval, Batman and his associates were determined that the enterprise should be proceeded with and in this intention they arranged for a small vessel, named the *Rebecca*. In this craft Batman, who was deputed to act for the association, set out from Hobart for the country beyond the northern straits,

and after a voyage of nineteen days, he succeeded in entering Port Phillip and landed on May the 29th, 1835, on its shores at Indented Head. Finding the country suitable for grazing purposes, he left several men to occupy the land on behalf of the association. Next day he sailed into the western arm of Port Phillip and landed at the mouth of the river which was afterwards called the Werribee. From that locality he proceeded inland in a north-westerly direction, finding everywhere land of such excellent quality that he described it as the best he had ever seen. Returning to his vessel, he sailed to the head of Port Phillip and there discovered the Saltwater River, which he proceeded up for a long way in a boat, but without observing any attractive land on either side of his course. Finally, he left his boat and started inland with the twofold purpose of further exploring the country and of meeting some of the natives. As he left the river, the land continually improved and before he came to a stream known afterwards as the Plenty River, he had passed through some miles of fine country. Near the Plenty he encountered some of the blacks and these conducted him to their camp, where he was presented to others of the tribe, eight of whom he was pleased to consider were chiefs. From these untutored sons of the wild and presumptive lords and owners thereof, he, with much ceremony, arranged for the trifling consideration of a quantity of such goods as knives, scissors, handkerchiefs, looking-glasses and some flour, to purchase from them the enormous area of 600,000 acres of mostly splendid land, which included within its limits the site of the future city of Melbourne and other land on the banks of the Yarra. The deed of sale was made out in triplicate and these the sable sons of the soil signed with tribal marks, probably having but the vaguest idea of what they were doing. It is at least fairly certain that they would as readily have signed to transfer to Batman any larger area that fancy might have suggested and equally so that none of the land transferred would have belonged to those who had cheerfully signed it away.

On his way back from the camp of the blacks to where the *Rebecca* was anchored, Batman saw a large lagoon covered with ducks. This reedy expanse of shallow water, with its abundant wild-fowl, occupied much of the site where in years to come the great population of West Melbourne would be found. A day or two later, from near the site of the present city of Williamstown,

Batman pulled up a stream which soon after was named the Yarra Yarra, by Mr. J. H. Wedge, the surveyor of the Batman Company. The course of the land seeker, along this stream was at length interrupted by the Falls that had previously barred the passage of the boats of the Robins-Grimes party and which now opposed the progress of his own. But he did not really require to go further, for, apart from what he had previously seen with satisfactory results, just below these falls there was country facing the river which impressed him so greatly by its beauty, fertility and convenience of access that he recorded the remark : " This will be the site of a village "—a remark made with the full satisfaction that the scene surveyed was part of the estate he had bought from the blacks and which he fondly hoped would be permanently his. However, with the inspection of the land on the banks of the Yarra and a passing call on his men at Indented Head, he departed for Hobart to report to his associates the result of his expedition ; to obtain from Governor Arthur an endorsement of the bargain he had made with the blacks, and to make arrangements for the transport of his stock and other possessions to the smiling lands on the shores of Port Phillip.

CHAPTER VI

PIONEERS OF PORT PHILLIP—FAWKNER

Whilst Batman pursued his way to Van Diemen's Land, he was quite unaware there was another expedition on its way to the country he was leaving which was to effectually dispute his claim to a monopoly of the lands he had seen on the Yarra and to the honour of being the pioneer settler on the site where the future city of Melbourne was to be. This expedition was the result of an association formed by John Pascoe Fawkner, about the time that Batman was setting out for Port Phillip. Fawkner had previously beheld a part of the country his company was about to prospect, for when a boy of eleven, he had landed on the shores of Port Phillip in company with his father who, for a small offence, was transported in the expedition of Colonel Collins. But the locality the boy had seen, as a member of the penal community, was not calculated to impress him in his ripe

maturity with confidence in the fertility of the surrounding country.

Fawkner, unlike Batman, who was a pastoralist, was a man of urban occupation. He was a hotel-keeper, newspaper proprietor and a kind of unregistered lawyer; but, nevertheless, one with a fair practice in the Launceston courts. The company he formed mostly consisted of tradesmen, indicating that the associates would devote their energies mainly to town undertakings. By them a vessel, named the *Enterprise*, was chartered and the leader, accompanied by several of the shareholders, set sail for the country they hoped to settle in. Meeting, however, with contrary winds and a heavy sea, Fawkner became very sick and finally requested the captain of the vessel to return to the Tamar River. This having been done, Fawkner went ashore and, with his full concurrence, the *Enterprise* set sail again. Her destination was Western Port; but when this haven was reached, it was found that the country surrounding the inlet was so poor in quality that it was resolved to leave it and to try for better on the shores of Port Phillip. With this purpose in view, the vessel was sailed to its new destination; but hardly had she entered the bay than a boat containing some representatives of the Batman Company met her and informed those on board that the whole of the western site of the bay, together with that fronting the rivers at the head of it, belonged to the Batman Association by right of purchase. Fawkner's partners were sufficiently impressed by this announcement to induce them to examine the eastern shores of the port for suitable land; but, finding none, they resolved to brave the warnings of the Batman bailiffs and, accordingly, directed their course to the north of the bay. There the party of land seekers ascended the Saltwater River for some ten miles, meeting with increasing obstacles in the shape of drift-wood and matted branches and with no signs of suitable land. Weary of this slow and unprofitable progress, they turned back to the mouth of the river, where they found another stream flowing into the bay a little to the eastward. This river—the Yarra Yarra—they resolved to explore. At some miles from its mouth it was found to flow through fine and fairly open country. When at length further progress was blocked by the falls, known to the two preceding expeditions, the party landed on the adjacent land that had so favourably impressed Batman. They found it equally attractive to them and covered

with its "velvet-like grass carpet, decked with brilliant-coloured flowers, the fresh water, the fine flats and knolls round the lagoons covered with wild-fowl," it "filled them with joy." On this charming site the partners landed their stock and stores from the *Enterprise*, which they had caused to be carefully brought up from the mouth of the river. The landing-place was close to the present Customs House and near there the partners decided to settle and to that end built some rough structures of sods for the shelter of themselves and their animals. Fawkner was not long in following his partners to the chosen spot and his home, which soon arose on the scene, was the first properly constructed house, built on the site where in time a great city was to be.

Simultaneously with the erection of the sod-built structures, sufficient land for the production of the wheat and vegetables required for the use of the settlement was ploughed and sown.

It was this busy infant community that met the eyes of Mr. J. H. Wedge, the surveyor of the Batman Company, who had come across it whilst pursuing his task of surveying the extensive estate claimed by his association. Wedge notified the intruders that they were trespassing; but his warning was ignored by the Fawkner partners, who proceeded with their work as though they were securely possessed of the lands they occupied. When later on Batman himself arrived from Van Diemen's Land and personally protested to Fawkner, the remonstrance failed to have any effect and, thenceforth, the rival factions proceeded with the business of establishing themselves in the territory without reference to one another. Batman's people mainly devoted their attention to grazing pursuits, on the western side of Port Phillip; though he caused a substantial homestead to be erected on some twenty acres of that land, near the Yarra, which he had remarked would be suitable for the site of a village. This estate he enclosed and planted with fruit trees.

Fawkner's people confined their energies wholly to the locality in the vicinity of where they had landed, and amongst the structures he built was the first public-house of the Port Phillip settlement.

CHAPTER VII

A WHITE MAN WITH THE BLACKS

Whilst the little community that had settled on the Yarra was in its earliest stage and before any of their permanent structures had been erected, the occupying party that Batman had left at Indented Head one day beheld a tall strange-looking man, whose appearance denoted that though he had adopted the habits of the aboriginals, he was not one of them. On closer examination they saw that he was a white man; but found that he was unable to understand their speech. By degrees, however, he seemed to remember sufficient of what had evidently been his language in former years and then he was able to inform them that he had been living with the blacks since the time of Colonel Collins' expedition which, in his ignorance of the date, he supposed had been on the shores of Port Phillip some twenty years before. He was, in fact, a convict named William Buckley, who thirty-two years previously had escaped from the Collins settlement. He attributed his preservation from death, on the occasion of his first meeting with the blacks, to the fact that when travelling through the bush he found the grave of an aboriginal on which a spear was laid. This he picked up and carried away, and being met by some natives whilst bearing this weapon, they recognized it as the spear of the dead man who had been a member of their tribe and at once concluded that Buckley was the defunct warrior come to life with a white skin. On this account they received the white stranger with gladness and welcomed him into the tribe. Buckley stated that he soon learnt their language; received one of their women as his wife and adopted their manners and customs. He first learnt of the existence in the country of men of his own colour by hearing his fellow-tribesmen plotting to kill some white-skinned strangers who had settled at Indented Head, and it was to warn these men that he had presented himself before them. He had, he said, hesitated at first to do so; because he feared arrest as an escaped convict. Batman's men made the newcomer welcome and he more than repaid them for it; since owing to the great influence he had with the blacks, the whites were not molested by them. Abandoning his life with the

natives, Buckley remained with his countrymen, to whom he became very useful as an interpreter between them and the blacks. For his services in that way he was rewarded by receiving a free pardon from Governor Arthur of Van Diemen's Land for the offence for which he had been transported and, later on, he obtained a further recognition of his services by being appointed constable in the settlement on the Yarra. After some years in that capacity, he removed to Hobart, where he died in the year 1856, after having seen the territory in which he was for many years the only white man grow into a rich and prosperous colony and one of the great cities of the world existing where he had for more than a generation seen no signs of human life other than those of the dark-skinned children of the wilds.

CHAPTER VIII

GOVERNOR BOURKE DENOUNCES TRESPASSING, BUT PROCLAIMS THE LANDS OPEN TO SETTLEMENT

The news of the settlement of Batman and Fawkner's parties on the shores of Port Phillip and the fine country they had taken up there speedily spread amongst the people of Van Diemen's Land, and as many of the large stock-owners were on the look out for good grazing land, numbers of them began to pour across the straits, so that in a very short time all the area adjacent to the future cities of Melbourne and Geelong that was not already occupied by the first pioneers was taken up and stocked and, a little later on, the land further afield was in every direction claimed by graziers not only from Van Diemen's Land but from all parts of the territory of the Middle or Sydney District. So rapidly was this effected that when Governor Bourke visited the Port Phillip country but two years after Batman appeared on its shores there were already a hundred thousand sheep on its pastures—a number that within four years was to increase to a million and a half.

But this great and advantageous movement had been wholly without the sanction of the authorities in England, or of Governor Bourke, to whose jurisdiction the whole country from the Murray to Bass Straits belonged. At first he was determined to treat

these squatters as trespassers and, accordingly, on the 26th of August, 1835, he issued a proclamation to that effect. The announcement of the Governor caused consternation amongst all who held land in the Port Phillip District; but the only result of their appeals for consideration was the issue, early in the year 1836, of another proclamation, whereby the Port Phillip lands were thrown open for settlement; whilst all occupation prior to that date was declared to be unauthorized and therefore void, as were all so-called purchases of land from the blacks, and persons claiming areas in town or country were required to obtain a conveyance from the Crown by virtue of purchase or the payment of rent. The apparent result of the proclamation was that little if any consideration was to be given for the work performed by the original settlers. They were, in fact, compelled to buy at public auction the land they had reclaimed from the primeval bush. Batman's treaty with the blacks was wholly ignored and it was only after repeated appeals that he was allowed a rebate of £7000 on the price he had recently paid on behalf of his association for the land he had taken up to the west of Geelong, as part of his original purchase from the blacks. The home he had built on the bank of the Yarra and the improvements he had made on the land connected therewith were on sufferance allowed to remain in his possession; but when, soon after, the worry over the failure of his hopes had hastened his death, his widow and family were allowed, when leaving the land he had enclosed, to remove the materials of which the house was built. Such was the reward of the pioneers of Port Phillip. They had claimed extravagantly; but as pioneers and explorers they were fairly entitled to some recognition of their services to the State.

CHAPTER IX

CAPTAIN LONSDALE APPOINTED REPRESENTATIVE OF THE GOVERNOR

The irregular proceedings connected with the settlement of the Port Phillip lands made it apparent to Governor Bourke that a local representative of his authority was required in the district—one, in fact, who could from his situation in the locality give

close attention to the progress of events and deal with many matters that would not bear the delay involved in reference to Sydney. Accordingly, he determined to appoint a resident deputy, and of his intention to do this he promptly advised persons in the settlement on the Yarra who were complaining of the hardships they would suffer under the operation of his recent proclamations.

The Governor's promise in this matter was carried into effect by the appointment of Captain William Lonsdale to act as his deputy with the title and position of Resident Police Magistrate. Conveyed in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*, commanded by Captain Hobson, from whom Port Phillip is sometimes known as Hobson's Bay, Deputy Lonsdale arrived in the settlement on the 9th of September, 1836.

Though not invested with the title of Lieutenant-Governor, Captain Lonsdale was endowed with all the prerogatives of one, save the rank and emoluments. He had the right to the services of the military for a guard of honour and for the purpose of controlling opposition to the authority of the Crown; but the latter was a power he had little use for, because the residents were a steady, peaceful and law-abiding people. One of the last of the recommendations made by Governor Bourke, ere his departure for England, was that the status and rank of the Melbourne deputy should be raised to that of a Lieutenant-Governor.

In a report, made shortly after Captain Lonsdale's arrival, it was stated that the then unnamed settlement was situated about seven miles from the mouth of the Yarra, and that it contained a population of 142 males and 35 females. Of these 9 persons were described as proprietors under the Batman treaty; 24 were independent settlers who ignored that bargain, and the balance were employees of one kind or another. The dwellings were 13 in number, mostly built of turf; whilst tents, together with rough shelters made from boughs of trees, provided for those of the population who possessed no better covers from the weather. The live stock of this community comprised 26,500 sheep, 100 cattle and 57 horses, which, together with the farming implements of the surrounding settlers, were valued at the sum of £80,000.

CHAPTER X

GOVERNOR BOURKE VISITS PORT PHILLIP

Despite the existence of his local representative and the official determination to ignore all claims made for land by virtue of occupation, numbers of persons continued to appeal direct to the Governor with claims and complaints, and the delay involved in forwarding and receiving replies from Sydney caused such dissatisfaction that Sir Richard Bourke resolved to visit the head-quarters of the scene of the troubles and to personally inspect the district around it. In this determination he arrived in the settlement on the 4th of March, 1837.

After the usual ceremonials of reception, the Governor decided to make an inspection of the nameless hamlet, which still consisted mainly of rough and scattered huts of turf.

With the ignoring of the claims of the first pioneers came, also, that of the settlers for compensation for demolition of structures; for as the Governor had planned to have the land in and around the settlement divided into allotments and separated by streets, all buildings that conflicted with the design were ordered to be removed or demolished. The town was laid out in streets 99 feet in width and with a lane behind each of the series of allotments facing the street. The whole of these allotments were then sold by auction.

The demolition of nearly all the primitive structures of the pioneers was, apart from the absence of any compensation, an unmixed benefit, for they were in nearly every case replaced by buildings of a superior class; whilst the wide streets and the parallel lanes were lasting benefits that have made the village that Fawkner began, grow into one of the best laid out cities in the southern hemisphere.

The town the Governor caused to be laid out in this manner had had, as we have seen, no definite designation. He decided it should be thenceforth called Melbourne, after the Prime Minister of the day.

His own name is perpetuated in that of one of the finest of its streets and in that of the county in which the city is located.

The Governor also approved of plans for a town at the mouth of the Yarra and, believing it would surpass Melbourne

in importance, he called it Williamstown, after the reigning Sovereign.

After inquiring into matters connected with the claims of the pioneers, but without departing from the spirit of his proclamations, the Governor made a journey of inspection and pleasure into the surrounding country and then returned to Sydney, whence before the close of the year 1837 he retired to England.

CHAPTER XI

CHARLES LATROBE, SUPERINTENDENT OF PORT PHILLIP— GREATLY INCREASED POPULATION

It was two years before the authorities in England dealt with the suggestions of Governor Bourke as to the status of the Melbourne deputy, and then the decision was to appoint Mr. Charles Joseph Latrobe with the title of Superintendent of the Port Phillip District. This officer commenced his duties on the 2nd of October, 1839, and, as it was defined in the following year, this district embraced all the country between the Murray, Murrumbidgee and Moruya rivers and Bass Straits; but this delimitation was so strongly objected to by the Sydney Legislative Council that Lord Stanley reduced the area of the district by separating from it the coastal territory northward of Cape Howe and the country lying between the Murray and Murrumbidgee, so that the Port Phillip territory embraced the same country as was later on to become the colony of Victoria.

Mr. Latrobe was at first received with great demonstrations of respect and welcome; but he soon encountered a feeling of antagonism that lasted right up to the end of his long occupancy of the ruler's chair. Still, there was little that his opponents could allege against him, for he endeavoured to conduct the affairs of his government with fairness and justice; but the fact that he steadily refused to consider himself as more than the representative of the Governor in Sydney tended to make him unpopular in a district that was fast growing in wealth and importance and already aimed at separation from the control of the Sydney authorities.

At the time Mr. Latrobe began his duties, the population of

Melbourne amounted to 3000 persons. There were, nevertheless, scarcely one hundred brick buildings in the town and these were mostly but one storey high, whilst the remainder of the structures consisted of weather-board dwellings or rude log-built huts; and whilst there were eighteen places for the sale of liquor, there were but two small churches to be found.

Labour was scarce, and to meet this shortage 400 free immigrants who had been despatched from Great Britain to Sydney, at the cost of the fund derived from the land sales, were forwarded to Melbourne by Sir George Gipps, the new Governor.

Shortly afterwards the first immigrant ship, direct from England, arrived in Port Phillip, bringing 229 passengers. By these arrivals, together with those who came out at their own expense and from Van Diemen's Land and the Sydney district, 2500 persons were added to the population by the end of the year 1840; whilst during the following year no less than 44 ships arrived in the bay with 8000 people, and as buildings were not erected in proportion to this influx, many of the new-comers had to live in tents. By the end of the year the population had mounted in number to 20,416 persons.

CHAPTER XII

THE RISE IN VALUES—THE SUCCEEDING CRISIS

The great increase in population naturally rapidly advanced the value of land; but this legitimate rise was largely accentuated by the operations of speculators who bought not for use, but to hold till the needs of the increasing host of genuine land seekers enabled the operators to successfully demand prices far above the use value of the areas disposed of and far beyond what, in the case of town allotments, the buyers could afford to pay. But as money was readily obtained on loan and as the demand for land was imperative, numbers of persons, in order to purchase, became indebted to the banks, and it only wanted some fall in the value of the primary products for the banks to feel impelled to call in their advances. That contingency actually occurred by a great reduction in the price of wool and the result was an immediate demand from the financial institutions for

the payment of their loans. Everywhere people in town and country were unable to meet their liabilities, and thus suburban lands that had within a year risen from £7 per acre up to £25 and £40, fell far below the first-mentioned price; whilst stock that had been bought at 30s. and 40s. per head was afterwards re-sold by the practically insolvent purchasers at from 1s. 6d. to 3s. each. The failure and distress of the land-holders reacted on the trading community, and the result was that during the years 1842 and 1843 the bankruptcy court was thronged with unfortunate individuals whose estates in many cases returned but 6d. in the pound.

When things were in this disastrous condition, it was discovered that it would pay to boil animals down for their tallow, and thus it happened in Port Phillip District, as in New South Wales, north of the Murray, that stock that was scarcely worth anything in the market, just before this discovery, a few days later had an appreciable value. Hope and confidence immediately revived, and with confidence in the future, money that was locked up began to be expended on improvements, labour to be employed and business to increase. Thus the tide of prosperity began to steadily rise; but this time on a sounder basis, for people no longer purchased except for use and all lived within their means. Besides population had ceased to arrive and, as there was only the moderate requirements of the residents to be met, land was available at prices that would enable satisfactory returns to be made for the labour and outlay of the purchasers.

CHAPTER XIII

EVENTS IN THE EARLY DAYS OF PORT PHILLIP

As far back as the year 1837, communication between Melbourne and Sydney was put on what for the time was a satisfactory basis by the running between the two ports of the steamer *James Watts*. At first, her trips were made fortnightly; but as the volume of traffic increased, the voyages were made weekly with a call at Launceston on the way.

In addition to the sea route, towards the end of the year 1838 an overland mail was provided between the capital and

Melbourne which at first took three weeks in transit; but by having several carriers, the mail was run fortnightly and, later on, weekly. The minimum postage by this mail was 1s. 3d. per letter.

The first direct mail to Great Britain was despatched during the year 1839, by the barque *Thomas Laurie*, and with her went, also, the first shipment of wool from Port Phillip. On the other hand, during the same year two vessels arrived in the port direct from England.

The humble pioneer of the Melbourne Press appeared on the 1st January, 1839, in the shape of a manuscript journal brought out by the pioneer settler of the town, Mr. J. P. Fawkner. After its ninth issue it was issued in print; but its career was then suddenly interrupted by the discovery of a legal informality in connection with its appearance without being registered. Later on, under the name of the "Port Phillip Patriot," it appeared again as a fearless, but by no means unbiassed critic of the administration of the Superintendent.

The year 1839 saw, also, the opening of two important financial institutions in Melbourne. These were the Bank of Australasia and the Union Bank; whilst a third one—the Bank of Port Phillip—began operations in the following year, but was not destined to a long career.

It was not solely for the business of Melbourne that these banking facilities were provided, for the country districts were receiving a continuous influx of settlers, and whilst all of these had more or less capital, most of them required a degree of financing.

Amongst other important events of the year 1842, the most noteworthy was the passing through the British Parliament of a Bill which gave to the people of New South Wales, including the Port Phillip District, the right to expend the whole of the revenue they could collect, except that derived from the sale or rents of public lands, or devoted to the maintenance of the public servants and religion. It granted full power to legislate on all matters which were not repugnant to the laws of England. It took from the Governor the right to initiate or veto proposed legislation, but left him the power to reserve Bills for the Royal assent. It provided for a Legislative Council of thirty-six members, of whom one-third were to be nominees of the Crown, and of these not more than one-half were to be Government

officials. Two-thirds, that were to be elected, were to be chosen by voters having a small property qualification. Eighteen of the elective members were to represent New South Wales, north of the boundary of the Port Phillip District, and six the district itself. Five of the latter were to represent the country and the other one the town of Melbourne.

The year 1842 was also marked by the establishment of a branch of the Supreme Court of New South Wales in Melbourne and by the incorporation of the town as a municipality.

By Letters Patent, in the year 1847, Melbourne was raised to the dignity of a city.

CHAPTER XIV

THE END OF THE CONVICT SYSTEM

Hardly had Melbourne assumed its new dignity as a city than it began to be stated that the Imperial authorities were contemplating the renewal of transportation to New South Wales. No sooner was this rumour confirmed by information, during the year 1849, that two convict ships—the *Randolph* for Melbourne and the *Hashemy* for Sydney—were on the way out than the long dormant agitation against the convict system was actively awakened. A public meeting was held in Melbourne, whereat, after forcible speeches, it was resolved that a petition should be sent to Great Britain wherein it was asserted that "Your petitioners emphatically protest that the Sovereign of the British realms, neither hath nor ought to have any right, prerogative, or power warranting the letting loose in the colony of the convict criminals of other countries; that your petitioners feel that the carrying out of Sir George Grey's suggestions will render the Royal prerogative odious and will seriously endanger the connection between the colony and the parent State."

In the Sydney District the movement against transportation was also pronounced; though scarcely so menacing as in Melbourne; still the proposed renewal of transportation was denounced as a breach of faith, seeing that in the year 1840 transportation to the mainland of Australia was declared by an Order-in-Council to be about to finally end. The petition from

the Melbourne meeting was widely signed by persons of all classes; whilst the Legislative Council and the City Council each passed resolutions condemning the renewal of transportation.

As these steps were being taken, tidings came that the two ships were on the coast and might be expected at any moment in the bay. The morning after this intelligence arrived the "Argus" newspaper came out with a stirring article beginning, "Colonists of Port Phillip, the hour has come and the men; it behoves us to see they do not land." A meeting was hastily convened and resolutions of a kind that implied further serious steps were adopted and presented to Governor Fitzroy, who happened to be in Melbourne. He was gravely warned by the presenters that the landing of the prisoners was likely to cause a riot. The Governor was seriously impressed with the feeling evidenced and decided that no prisoners should be landed till the authorities in England were apprised of the sentiments of the colonists, and by his instructions the captain of the *Randolph* was advised by the pilot at Queenscliff not to enter the bay; but despite this, the vessel entered, the captain stating that he was chartered for Port Phillip and there he would go. However, before any attempt was made to land the prisoners, the Governor, for the sum of £500, prevailed on the captain to convey his unwelcome charges to Moreton Bay, where there was not then a sufficient free population to cause much opposition. The immediate trouble was thus evaded so far as Port Phillip was concerned; but the colonists there and at Sydney were by no means satisfied. An Australian Anti-Transportation League was formed and a meeting was convened of delegates from all the colonies, actual and prospective, except Western Australia, to prepare a general remonstrance against the sending of British prisoners to any part of Australia, or its adjacent islands; for it was held that in whatever locality convicts might be placed, they would prove a constant menace to all the remainder of the continent. The meeting was duly held in Melbourne and this, the first assemblage of a national character, had a decisive effect, for when its proceedings became known in England, it was prudently resolved by the Imperial Government that the time had arrived when transportation to any of the colonies represented by the Australian League must terminate, and terminated it was at the end of the year 1852, when the last convict ship arrived in Van Diemen's Land.

CHAPTER XV

THE SEPARATION OF PORT PHILLIP AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COLONY OF VICTORIA

From a very early period of its history, the settlement on the Yarra had shown dissatisfaction with the state of affairs under which matters of purely local interest had to be judged and determined on the shores of Port Jackson, nearly six hundred miles away. That distance, during all the time that the Port Phillip District was a portion of the colony of New South Wales, was a much more serious obstacle to business than it was at a later date when railways and fast steamers were to vastly reduce the time, trouble, and expense of travelling. As the population of Port Phillip grew, the discontent of the settlers increased so fast that in the year 1840, when the settlement was barely five years old, a meeting of the residents decided to petition the Imperial Government for separation from New South Wales. Two years later the Port Phillip people found themselves entitled to return six members to the partly elective Legislative Council which had just been provided for in Sydney ; but owing to the difficulty, time, and expense involved in travelling between Melbourne and the seat of the Legislature, the Port Phillip people discovered that six of their number could not be found who were willing to proceed to Sydney to act as their representatives. They had thus to accept of the services of Sydney gentlemen to sit for them in the Legislative Council. However, they did not really lose much by this, for the Sydney residents whom they chose to act for them proved themselves to be faithful exponents of their wishes. One of these was Dr. Lang. He felt that the chief reason that he sat in the Legislature as a member for Port Phillip was to express the wishes of those who had elected him in favour of the separation of the district from New South Wales. He, therefore, in the year 1844, which was as early as the business of the Council permitted, took an opportunity to move a resolution praying that the necessary steps should be taken for the speedy and entire separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales and its establishment as an independent colony. The motion received the support of five of the members

for Port Phillip, the sixth being absent, and of Mr. Robert Lowe, one of the nominee representatives of the Sydney District; but it was rejected by a great majority, for the whole of the other members present voted in the negative. The result of the decision of the Legislature only made the Port Phillip people, more especially those of Melbourne, more determined to carry their purpose. The agitation for separation had never been altogether dormant since its first inception, but from the time of the failure of Dr. Lang's resolution, it was continued with ever-increasing resolution. Finally, the attention of the Imperial Government was directed to the matter in a striking manner. In the second year of Fitzroy's governorship—that is to say in the year 1848, when the elective members of a new Legislative Council were to be chosen, the electors of Melbourne nominated and then elected by a great majority Earl Grey, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, as their representative in the Legislative Council. This they did to emphasize their contention that their representation in the Sydney Legislature largely partook of the nature of a farce. Their action in this matter impressed the Minister and induced him to commission the Board of Trade, strengthened by the addition of three able men, acquainted with the colonies, to devise a scheme of self-government for the Australian Colonies and particularly for the dissatisfied district. The Board drew up a report that, among other matters, favoured the separation of the Port Phillip District from New South Wales and its establishment as a new colony under the name of Victoria. Among other important recommendations, the Board proposed that there should be a General Assembly for Australia with power over Customs, the Post Office, shipping, and a few other matters of general interest; whilst the representative of the Crown in New South Wales should bear the title of Governor-General and have power to summon the General Assembly. The report of the Board in respect to the establishment of the Colony of Victoria was adopted and was passed by the Imperial Legislature on the 1st of July, 1850, though the even more important recommendation in favour of a Federal System was dropped. And, whilst Fitzroy and his successor bore the title of Governor-General, there was neither power nor privilege attached to the rank which in the case of the Governors following his successor was dropped; though in the fullness of time, it was to be revived for good and valid reasons.

The statute under which the Colony of Victoria was established is known as the Act for the Better Government of the Australian Colonies. It received the Royal assent on the 5th of August, and as far as the Imperial Parliament was concerned, the separation of the Port Phillip District and the establishment of the Colony of Victoria was an accomplished fact. But before it could come into operation in Australia the Act had to be adopted by the Legislative Council of New South Wales and, thereafter, would not be legally in force till the return of the writs for the election of the Victorian Legislative Council.

Though passed in Great Britain in the year 1850, it was not dealt with by the Legislative Council of New South Wales till the following year.

The Sydney Legislature received the Imperial Act with a little dissatisfaction and then, as empowered by the statute, proceeded to provide for a Legislative Council for Victoria. It fixed the number of the Councillors of the new colony at thirty, of whom twenty were to be elected by the people and ten nominated by the Crown.

When the news of the passing of the Imperial Act arrived in Melbourne the joy of the colonists there was exceedingly great; but their gladness was soon tempered by serious dissatisfaction, for they learned that the boundary originally fixed for the Port Phillip District, in the year 1840, was not to be observed for the Colony of Victoria. Its limits were, in fact, to be those finally adopted for the Port Phillip District and as have been stated in an earlier chapter.

On the 1st of July, 1851, Mr. Charles Joseph Latrobe, who had for sixteen years been ruling as Superintendent of the Port Phillip District, was appointed Lieutenant-Governor, and, on the 22nd of the same month, the writs for the Legislative Council were returned, so that the establishment of the Colony of Victoria was legally completed in the month of July, 1851.

On the 11th of December of that year the first meeting of the Legislative Council of the colony was held.

CHAPTER XVI

THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD

At the time when Victoria began its existence as a colony it contained about seventy thousand inhabitants; but, almost simultaneously with its establishment, an event occurred which was to rapidly and vastly increase its population. This was the official announcement that gold had been discovered within its limits. There had, it is true, been earlier reported finds of the precious metal; but little notice of them was taken and apparently no results followed. Thus, in the year 1849, a shepherd, named Chapman, went to Melbourne with a piece of quartz, richly veined with gold, and he informed an Italian jeweller, to whom he showed the specimen, that he knew where there was plenty more of the same kind of stone. In consequence of Chapman's story the jeweller and a Frenchman accompanied him to the place where he had found the piece of quartz. In that locality they succeeded in discovering two nuggets of gold, each weighing about twenty ounces; but as Chapman strangely disappeared and the foreigners did not continue their search after the precious metal, their discovery of the nuggets led to no further results. More than two years later the discoveries made by Mr. Hargraves in New South Wales became known in Victoria, and as large numbers of the people of the southern colony were preparing to start for the northern gold-fields, those who were interested in the prosperity of Victoria became very anxious for the discovery of gold in its territory. Some of these persons met and resolved that they would give a reward of £200 to anyone who should succeed in finding a payable gold-field within two hundred miles of Melbourne. The offer of this reward caused searches to be made in all directions. After several persons had stated but had not proved that they had been successful in finding the precious metal, Mr. William Campbell, a member of the Legislative Council, publicly announced on the 10th of June, 1851, that he had discovered, during the previous year, undoubted proofs of the existence of gold on his station at Clunes. In the same month as Mr. Campbell's announcement, discoveries were made at Anderson's Creek, a tributary of the Yarra. On the 5th of July gold-bearing quartz was found in the Australian Pyrenees

Mountains, and on the 10th of August came the news that rich gold deposits existed at Buninyong. This discovery quickly attracted great numbers of gold-seekers; but as many of these were not as successful as they had expected to be they turned their steps northward till they came to a bend in the course of Yarrowee Creek, which flows near what was to become the City of Ballarat. There they resolved to try their fortune, with the result that so much of the precious metal was soon obtained by them, and by those who speedily hastened after them to the spot, that the place received the name of Golden Point.

Before the end of the month of September, two thousand diggers were at work in the locality, and this number continued to increase till the middle of the month of November, when information was received of the discovery of the wonderfully rich alluvial deposits on the flanks of Mount Alexander and in the basins of Forest and Bendigo Creeks which flow near its base into the Loddon. The treasures there gave every appearance of being still greater than those that were being obtained near Ballarat. This promise was not deceptive, and by the end of the month of December it was variously estimated that there were between twelve and twenty thousand persons, busily engaged in gathering the golden spoil from the sides of the mountain and the banks of the creeks.

This field had really been discovered on the 20th of July; but the finders kept their good luck to themselves as long as possible. But hardly had the first crowds of gold-seekers begun their search for the riches of Mount Alexander and Forest Creek when reports arrived early in November of the finding of another field of wonderful richness at Bendigo, thirty miles north of the scenes of the Mount Alexander discoveries. So sensational were the accounts of the new field that within a month from the time that its discovery became known there were twenty thousand people at work in the locality.

Another discovery of importance was made in the year 1852, but this time, far from the fields found in the preceding year. The new field was situated near a place that became known as Heathcote, in the Ovens district. It soon attracted a large population and though not equal in results to any of the three great gold-fields discovered in the preceding year, it yielded a large return to many of the diggers who sought its treasures.

CHAPTER XVII

IMMEDIATE EFFECT OF THE GOLD-FIELDS

When the reports of the riches of the first found fields were spread abroad a tide of population from all parts of the colony set in to the scenes of the discoveries; but when to the tales of the first finds were added stories, often exaggerated, of the amazing wealth of the Forest Creek and Bendigo fields, it seemed, for some time, to be highly probable that all the rest of Australia would be abandoned by its adult males for the small section of its surface that seemed from the current accounts to be sown with gold. Melbourne was early deserted by its able-bodied manhood, the ships in the port were left without crews, the employers of labour without workers and the Government departments almost without employees. South Australia was nearly emptied of her male population and the men of New South Wales seemed to be moving in mass to the southern colony. Soon the wondrous news reached the other continents and at once aroused some men of every country and many men of some countries to seek passages to the golden lands of Australia. These hosts landed in Melbourne from veritable fleets of vessels which were quickly abandoned by their crews, who with their passengers poured through the streets of the city away to where, report alleged, the river drifts were strown with gold.

In the year 1852, it was estimated that one hundred thousand persons arrived and that ninety thousand came in the following year; so that in about two years from its establishment, the population of the colony was more than trebled.

After the year 1853, the arrivals declined, but they were still so large that in the year 1856 the population of the colony numbered four hundred thousand, or more than five times as many people as it had when it separated from New South Wales.

As might be supposed, the maintenance of law and order and the carrying out of the regulations of the Government amongst this vast mass of new population was a matter of the most serious difficulty, especially so through the desertion of their posts by so many of the employees of the State. This was particularly

experienced in the Police Department, where the crying need of the time was vastly more men than were ordinarily required. What made this shortage more pressingly felt was that numbers of the officers left unexpectedly without the formality of asking to be relieved. They thus afforded a favourable opportunity for the practice of the nefarious pursuits of the many criminals who, without let or hindrance, entered the colony in the midst of the crowds of honest gold-seekers and were speedily lost in the hosts on shore. The united crowds formed a strange medley, in which lawyers, tradesmen, doctors, labourers, actors, sailors and clergymen, mingled with thieves, gamblers and wasters of every kind, jostled one another on the roads that led through the bush and scrub, over hills and creeks, to their various goals on the treasure fields. These roads, all unmetalled as they were, became soon so over-burdened with the vast traffic they were called upon to bear, that great holes quickly formed in their surface in which vehicles and even horses were bogged beyond recovery. Nevertheless, hope brightened the way for the pilgrims of fortune and few of them were deterred by the troubles of the journey from reaching their destinations; though after arriving there more of them failed than those who succeeded; still many were enriched to their utmost hopes, and between what they who won little and they who gained much, no less than £14,163,361 worth of gold was gathered from the various Victorian fields during the year 1852. Yet whilst this rich golden harvest was being won, the prices of commodities enormously increased; for just as the number of producers from the soil had greatly decreased, that of the consumers had more largely increased. Freights, too, had gone up by leaps and bounds, so that the rates between Melbourne and the nearest fields had mounted to £80 per ton. Flour, in particular, the most necessary of foods, was often burdened with a freight of as much as one and sixpence per pound, and when in Melbourne itself, where there was no road carriage to be added to the cost of production, bread went up as high as one and tenpence the loaf, it may be imagined that the price of food on the diggings was a most serious consideration to the mass of the population.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE GOLD LICENCE FEE

Much of the new population from beyond the seas was not by any means easy to control; for whilst it comprised many thousands who were of the finest manhood of the earth, there was a considerable percentage of ex-convicts from Van Diemen's Land and men whose departure from other countries was an unmixed benefit to the lands they had left.

Now the task of controlling the tens of thousands of this varied assortment of diggers was one that involved considerable expense, and following the example set by Sir Charles Fitzroy in New South Wales, Governor Latrobe resolved to endeavour to raise some revenue from the digger hosts that would at least provide for the maintenance of the police and wardens required on the gold-fields. The amount charged in New South Wales for a digger's licence was thirty shillings per month, and as it was easily collected and proved sufficient to meet the costs entailed on the Government for the supervision of the fields, Mr. Latrobe fixed the licence in Victoria at the same rate.

But the Victorian fields had attracted hosts of men who, though not objectionable in character, cared little for the authority of a colonial Governor, and those of them who were not obtaining sufficient returns for their labour considered the tax a grievous burden, as in truth it was to men so circumstanced. But others, also, who could readily pay deemed it unjust in principle, and believing that the colonial Government had not the means to enforce its collection, they sought to evade it and, for a time, many of them did so successfully. Governor Latrobe was in a difficult position. There were great bodies of men opposed to the licences, whilst he had but a small force available to enforce the tax, and it was questionable under the circumstances whether an attempt to compel its payment might not be resisted and that successfully; yet, after some display of a want of firmness, he decided, as the tax was not returning enough for the expenses of collection and the supervision of the fields, to double it. The result of this decision was a storm of protest, and meetings were held at which not only was the proposed increase denounced, but the idea of enforcing any fee at all was

described as unjust and tyrannical. The Governor wavered in the presence of the storm. He abandoned the idea of increasing the licence and suggested to the Legislative Council that the fee of thirty shillings per month should be abolished in favour of a royalty to be imposed on the gold exported. This would have been a more equitable tax, seeing that only those who had been successful diggers would have been required to pay it ; but the Council, which controlled the revenue obtained from the licence, declined to abolish it. Hence, efforts were made to enforce its collection by the arrest of diggers who were found to be without their licence papers. Those so discovered were dragged to the tent of the officer in charge of the police and there chained to a log outside. Moreover, it not seldom happened that the men so treated had really paid the tax, but were without their papers when the police arrived. From these circumstances, the feeling of antagonism to the tax grew in strength and began to develop into a sentiment of hostility to the Government. But before matters had become serious to the point of danger, in the month of August, 1853, the diggers sent a petition to the Governor in which they prayed that the licence fee should be reduced to ten shillings per month, and that as they had been consistent supporters of law and order, armed police should not be sent to collect it. They pointed out that they had no representation in the Legislative Council and, subsequently, added that whatever might be the law on the subject they had resolved not to pay more than ten shillings per month, even if they were all arrested for refusing. The Governor was unable to give them any satisfactory reply ; but he, in consequence of their representations, decided to again suggest to the Legislative Council the desirability of imposing a royalty on the gold exported in place of the licence fee ; but the Council consented only to reduce the tax so that it would be two pounds till the end of the year, a period of nearly four months. Unfortunately, the concession was only made to the diggers of Bendigo and Heathcote, where the feeling against the licence had been most warmly exhibited. The effect was that on those fields where the diggers had not displayed any pronounced opposition to the licence, the amount was not reduced, whilst in places where the miners had implied resistance the concession was granted. The tendency of this was to undermine the confidence of all the diggers and of others than they in the power of the executive to fairly and firmly administer the law.

Whilst acting in this inconsistent manner the Governor sought the aid of troops from Sydney and Hobart and, in response to his appeals, the 99th Regiment came from Tasmania, whilst shortly after another force arrived from Sydney. When matters were in the position that he seemed to be determined to rely on force, he obtained permission to retire. He had seen the colony grow from a small community into a great and populous State. He had beheld the dangerous agitation over the convict question satisfactorily settled; and after a long career of useful work, when confronted with a more serious crisis, found himself unable to control the difficulties of the position. He was succeeded on the 21st of June, 1854, by Sir Charles Hotham, a captain in the Navy and a man with some experience in diplomacy; but this experience proved of little avail in his dealings with the diggers. For some time, his sympathies, as far as his words went, seemed to be with them and their cause; but his actions belied his speeches, for one of the first measures he adopted was to send a military force into the heart of the digger population at Ballarat, and as it was felt that the soldiers were stationed there to overawe the miners, a bitter feeling was engendered between them and the military which was ere long exhibited in dangerous collisions. The Governor certainly tried to meet the views of the diggers in the matter of the licence fee; but the Legislative Council was not disposed to agree to substitute for the tax a duty on gold exported, nor to reduce the fee by law to ten shillings per month; whilst, as to the proposals for representation with taxation, Hotham could give the diggers no more than vague assurances, combined with the utterance of radical views, which only served to render his relations with the Legislative Council subject to friction.

CHAPTER XIX

GROWING DISCONTENT TENDS TO REBELLION

For the reasons given the Governor found that he could do little to conciliate the gold-fields workers, and what little he might have attempted was not tried, because his naval training deterred him from action when the diggers seemed disposed to demand as right what he considered would be concessions from authority.

Yet most of the diggers would have been quite willing to accept, for the time, the proposal of the Legislature that the licences might be reduced to two pounds for the remaining three months of the year; but, unfortunately, no attempt was made by Hotham to ensure that the civil officers and police would endeavour to act in harmony with the diggers.

It was, in fact, not merely the law and the regulations of the fields that the diggers objected to, but the manner in which they were administered. Most of the police, in particular, were men who had either been accustomed only to the control of convicts or to the more submissive populations of Great Britain and Ireland, and they were disposed to consider the diggers as men for whom arrogance of manner and brutality of speech were a fitting portion.

The long agitation over the fees as well as the presence of the soldiery had also begotten feelings of resentment which the insolence of the officials continually increased. Ballarat, where the irritation of the miners was most plainly displayed, was, early in October, crowded with diggers, and there the administrative officers were specially unpopular. When matters were in this position, it required but little to bring them to a crisis, and this was supplied by the brutality of a publican, named Bentley. This man had a hotel in which the police magistrate was supposed to be interested. On the night of the 6th of the month, Bentley was asked, after hours, by two diggers to supply them with liquor. He refused, and when they loudly and, perhaps, profanely protested against their exclusion, he attacked them with a spade and struck one of them, named Scobie, so violently on the head with that implement that the man was found next morning dead in the street. When this became known to the diggers they demanded the immediate arrest of Bentley for murder, but an inquiry was all that was conceded and the result of it was that the publican was discharged. When those of the miners who were near the place of inquiry learnt this decision, they hastened to Bentley's hotel, brushed aside the police who were there on guard, and poured into the building in search of the publican; but they found he had previously decamped. Baulked of their prey, they set fire to the house, which was burnt to the ground. For their share in this burning three of the miners were arrested, of whom two were subsequently convicted. But immediately after the arrest the diggers convened an indignation

meeting at which, following fiery speeches, a deputation was sent to Melbourne to wait on the Governor and demand the freedom of the arrested men. Hotham objected to the word "demand," but this expression the deputation declined to withdraw, and the Governor, on his part, then refused to consider the liberation of the prisoners. The delegates before retiring announced to the Governor that the last had not been heard of the matter.

Foreseeing that disturbances were likely to ensue from the report that would be made of his refusal to free the prisoners—a decision he had previously come to—the Governor had, prior to receiving the emissaries of the diggers, given orders for the concentration of all the available forces at Ballarat. The arrival of the reinforcements of military and police was noted with resentment by the miners and this feeling was openly manifested, on the 29th of November, when some fifty men of the 40th Regiment were approaching Ballarat by the Geelong Road; for though the detachment was not attacked, it was received with a storm of groans, of jeers and derisive cheers. But some eighty men of the 12th Regiment, who approached later on, were forcibly assailed by the crowd, which was in turn charged by the troops; but the result rather favoured the diggers, for the soldiers hastily moved off to their camp with several of their number seriously wounded, leaving the carts of ammunition they were escorting in the hands of their assailants. The same day another encounter took place near Eureka, in which the diggers were again the attackers. On this occasion, also, several of the soldiers were seriously injured.

On the following day a great meeting, largely attended by armed men, was held in a hall over which was flying a large blue flag with five silver stars typifying the constellation of the Southern Cross. At this gathering resolutions were passed denouncing the licence fee and declaring that the people would pay it no longer, but would take immediate steps to abolish it by burning their licence papers; further, that a Reform Association should be formed to protect its members. The meeting also strongly protested against bodies of armed men marching about the diggings and firing on the people without reading the Riot Act. At that very time there were troops in motion on the diggings, and skirmishes between them and some of the miners were actually in progress.

CHAPTER XX

MILITARY PRECAUTIONS—THE ATTACK ON EUREKA STOCKADE AND AFTERWARDS

Apprehensive of an attack on the military camp, the officer in command had caused it to be protected by sandbags, and the whole of the police and troops were kept under arms, whilst from Melbourne the Governor was hurrying every available man to the Ballarat fields, hoping to assemble there such a force as might serve to overawe the rebellious diggers. At this time those of the miners who were not prepared to take part in what was becoming an insurrection retired from the movement, which then fell completely into the control of those who had ideas far beyond the remedy of temporary grievances and who, in fact, thought the time had come when the establishment of National Independence might be effected. These men formed a "Provisional Government" and hoisted the blue flag with the five silver stars, as the symbol of the Australian Republic. Moreover, they requisitioned supplies from the storekeepers on the certificate of their "Minister for War."

The Government replied to these revolutionary acts by proclaiming the Ballarat District under martial law. That night lights were observed in the tents of the diggers and signals were seen to be exchanged between one portion of their camp and another; whilst shots were fired at the military sentries, who were driven in.

It was further reported to the officer in command that large numbers of insurgents were drilling and being apportioned off by their leaders into fighting units. One leader was overheard by an agent of the Government telling those of the diggers who had no fire-arms to make weapons by putting iron spikes on poles.

In consequence of these reports, the officer commanding the troops announced on the following day to the diggers that no lights were to be burning after 8 p.m., that no discharges of fire-arms would be tolerated, and that any persons disobeying these injunctions would be fired on. As the day proceeded, information was brought that the rebels had formed a stockade at Eureka where it commanded the approach from the Mel-

bourne Road, along which reinforcements for the troops were hourly expected to arrive, and these the diggers hoped to repulse. But other information showed that the stockade was carelessly guarded and that with the forces already at their command the authorities would be better able to crush the insurgents by a surprise attack than by waiting for reinforcements and, meanwhile, allowing the rebel forces to be efficiently organized. Within the stockade it was known that nearly all the leaders of the revolt would be found, and the ablest of these had that day unwittingly paved the way for the success of the troops by suffering the resolution of some of his men to be shaken by an address he allowed to be delivered by a Catholic priest on what turned out to be the "Evil and Folly of Armed Rebellion." Partly as a result of this deliverance and partly because the insurgents assumed that the commander of the troops would await the arrival of the expected force from Melbourne, the stockade was poorly garrisoned on the night of the 2nd of December; yet it contained the flag, the brain and hope of the rebel cause, for within were the members of the "Provisional Government," and to capture it was to virtually destroy the Republican movement.

On the evening of the 1st the fort had been garrisoned by seven hundred men; on the night of the 2nd it held less than a third of that number, many of the insurgents being engaged in duties elsewhere. This fact and the negligence of the guard having been learned by the officer in command of the Government forces, he determined on a prompt attack. Accordingly, in the grey dawn of the morning of the 3rd, he gave orders to the troops, to the number of 276, to advance quietly on the stockade. At this time, the great majority of the defenders were soundly asleep, and as they had already during the night been twice unnecessarily alarmed, they were in no hurry to arouse when their sentries discovered and fired on the approaching force. At this time the storming party was still about a hundred and fifty yards from the fort, and at that distance received the fire of such of the garrison as were aroused. The troops replied with a discharge that was much more effective and at the sound of the bugle charged, but when close to the position, halted to deliver another volley and then swarmed over the feeble barriers. Within they were met by a desperate resistance that lasted about a quarter of an hour, when, finding all was lost, some of the sur-

viving rebels threw down their arms in token of surrender; whilst others who were able made haste to escape.

Of less than two hundred men who had garrisoned the stockade over thirty were slain and one hundred and twenty-five were captured, of whom many were slightly or badly injured. On the side of the military, Captain Wise and four of the privates were killed and about a dozen more of them were wounded.

In the attack on the stockade, the troops had all the advantages of surprise, numbers, arms, cohesion and discipline, and, having these, the result of the encounter was a foregone conclusion.

When the prisoners and those who had fallen were inspected by their captors, it was found with vexation that there was missing one whom the victors would have been glad to account for. This was Mr. Peter Lalor, the ablest leader of the rebel movement. He had rushed at the first alarm to the point of danger and there, standing on a log to direct the movements of the defenders, was struck by a ball that shattered the bone of one of his arms, near the shoulder. In a few moments he fell half fainting to the ground, and being thus unable to escape, he was, at the risk of their lives, pushed by some of his friends into a hole in the ground and the top of it covered over with slabs. There he lay suffering much throughout the day, but all undetected by the victors. After nightfall some of the party stole back and removed him to the hills, and there, moving about from place to place through fear of the police, they conveyed him, secretly, on the following day to the residence of the priest who had preached in the stockade against armed rebellion. In this temporary asylum his wound was examined by two Ballarat doctors, who decided that the long delay in attending to the injury rendered an amputation necessary, and this being performed, the wounded man was put into a cart, beneath some loading, and after some narrow escapes on the road, was at length safely conveyed to the house of a friend in Geelong where, unknown to the police, who were anxious to earn the reward of £200 which was placed on his head, he remained till the Government abandoned the intention to prosecute further those who were concerned in the recent revolt.

Lalor then came forth and was soon after elected to the Legislative Council, and later on became Speaker of the Legislative Assembly, a position he retained for a number of years.

CHAPTER XXI

REFORM REPLACES REVOLT

But though the capture of the Eureka stockade had completely crushed the rebel movement, it had by no means terminated the agitation for reform, and the men who died in that short-lived struggle had no more given their blood in vain than Hampden did two hundred years before their time. Indeed, the events that led to and surrounded the defence of the rough-built fort on Eureka hill had sown the seed of reform far and wide, and many who had hitherto concerned themselves solely with the struggle for fortune began to recognize that the political condition of the colony, with all power divided between the Imperial authorities, their representative—the Governor—and the Legislative Council, elected on a restricted suffrage, was wholly unsatisfactory and required radical amendment to enable the inhabitants of Victoria to consider themselves a free people.

A great meeting was held in Melbourne, whereat the cause of the diggers was championed in words that were almost as pronounced as those that had characterized the Republican utterances of the gold-fields orators, and the sympathy of the people with the diggers was so generally evidenced that no jury could be found to convict the prisoners from the Eureka stockade.

The Government recognized that concessions of a decided character must be made and these, in the first instance, dealt with the special grievances of the mining people. The licence was changed from a monthly permit to a Miner's Right, having a yearly tenure, and was granted at a cost of twenty shillings, or at less by one-half than the sum the miners had formerly been compelled to pay for a permit to work for a single month. Moreover, the Miner's Right carried with it the electoral suffrage; so that by payment of the sum of a pound a year the miner obtained the right to mine and the right to vote. By this and other similar steps, the people soon began to forget the stormy excitement and disaffection which had widely prevailed throughout the colony towards the end of the year 1854.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT

On the 23rd of November, 1855, Victoria was endowed with a new Constitution which provided for a Parliament of two chambers—the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The former was to consist of thirty members, elected for ten years, and retiring, five at a time, at the end of each period of two years. The Chamber was not as a whole to be dissolved.

The Assembly was to consist of sixty members, elected for a term of five years, but subject to the fact that the House might be dissolved at an earlier period.

Four, at least, of the members of the Government were required to hold seats in Parliament and the Ministry as a whole was to be responsible to the Legislature.

Property qualifications of a substantial character were required, both from candidates for the Council and Legislative Assembly. That for the Council's candidates was fixed at the possession of a freehold of the value of £5000, or of an annual value of £500; that for those of the Assembly was the possession of freehold property of the value of £2000, or of an annual value of £200.

For the electors of both bodies the possession of property was also essential. To be a voter in a Council electorate required the possession of property of the value of £1000, or of an annual value of £100. For the franchise for the Assembly, the elector required to be the possessor of property valued at £50, or of an annual value of £5.

It was provided, immediately before the Constitution came into operation, that the elections should be carried out on the ballot system. In this last matter, Victoria was the first State, known to modern history, that made use of that system of vote by ballot, which is now universal throughout Australia.

With a constitution providing, in effect, that all political power should be in the hands of a section of the people it was natural that steps should be taken at an early date to have it amended in a liberal direction, and this began to be attempted in the first Parliament elected under the Constitution. The alterations that have been made may be conveniently considered together, rather than at the dates in our history that they might otherwise be recorded. They were as follow:

On the 27th of August, 1857, the property qualification of members of the Legislative Assembly was abolished; whilst manhood suffrage was established on the 24th of November of the same year.

On the 17th of December, 1858, the number of members of the Assembly was increased to 78.

On the 1st of January, 1869, the property qualification of members of the Legislative Council was reduced to one-half of that provided in 1855.

On the 2nd of November, 1878, the number of members of the Assembly was further increased to 86 and that of the Council to 42; whilst the qualification of the Councillors was reduced to the possession of a freehold of the annual rateable value of £100 and that of their electors to the possession of a freehold of the annual rateable value of £10.

In the year 1888, a further increase in the membership of the Assembly was made, when the number was fixed at 95 and that of the Council at 48.

On the 30th of August, 1899, plural voting was abolished in the case of electors for members of the Assembly but still obtains in the case of those for the Council.

The Assembly is elected by 84 districts; the Council by 14 provinces.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE TWO HOUSES

The course of the political history of the colony, through the radical difference in the suffrage for the two Houses of Parliament, was from the outset far from a smooth one; for the views of the majority of the people, as represented in the Assembly, were often at variance with those of the much smaller number who had votes for the Council. These differences on several occasions proved to be so serious and prolonged as to occasion deadlocks between the two Chambers, which caused the public business to be seriously impeded and much inconvenience to be suffered by the people. These occurrences were always to be feared where the majority of the members of the Assembly were inclined to legislation that might adversely affect the interests of the propertied classes who had from the first held control in the Council.

Whilst the electors returned radical or democratic majorities to the Assembly, it might be fairly certain that none of the

measures that particularly represented the views of these majorities would escape the risk of drastic amendments; or even of being rejected entirely. However, when in process of time the views of a majority of the electors for the Assembly became more in harmony with those of the voters who elected the Council, the collisions between the two parliamentary bodies greatly diminished in number and bitterness.

One of the deadlocks between the two Chambers was distinguished by an event, known from the day it occurred as "Black Wednesday." It made the date it occurred, the 8th of January, 1878, long remembered in the colony, for then some two hundred civil servants, mostly friends or connections of the members of the Legislative Council, were summarily dismissed for party reasons by Sir Graham Berry, the Premier of the time, who, in connection with the crisis that it seemed could not be settled in the colony, went to the Imperial authorities; but with little effect. During all the years when this dissension reigned between the two Houses, the colony was honoured by the presence in its councils of Mr. George Higginbotham, whose name shares, with those of Wentworth, Lang and Parkes, a pre-eminent position on the list of those who fought for Australian liberties in the days before they were substantially achieved. He was a staunch upholder of what he considered were the rights of the majority of the citizens, as against what he deemed were the unfounded claims of the Legislative Council, and a true Australian who firmly championed the interests of his country as against the pretensions of Imperial Ministers to a power to interfere in what he believed were purely matters of Australian concern.

CHAPTER XXII

THE BURKE AND WILLS EXPEDITION

Some five years after the granting of the Constitution that endowed Victoria with Responsible Government the people of the colony began to look across the confines of their own section of Australia and to take an interest in the exploration of the territories beyond its limits, with which they commenced to believe that Victorian citizens were inseparably connected.

Moved by this feeling, a sum of £1000 was raised to despatch an expedition to the northern shores of the continent. This amount was soon largely increased by further donations and by a grant from the public Treasury, which together brought the total to £6000. A Committee was appointed to control this fund, and besides comprising some of the leading citizens, it included the well-known botanist and explorer, Baron Mueller.

After offering the leadership of the proposed expedition to Mr. A. C. Gregory without success, the Committee eventually chose Mr. Robert O'Hara Burke for that position, with Messrs. Landells and W. J. Wills as second and third in command. In the month of August, 1860, the party, which was well supplied with camels and everything needful for a successful expedition, set out from Melbourne; but, from the first, differences of opinion caused ill-feeling between Burke and some of his subordinates. In consequence of this, Landells and the doctor of the expedition retired from it very early in the journey. Burke, nevertheless, pushed on, and on reaching the banks of the Barcoo River, or, as it is also called, Cooper's Creek, left the bulk of his stores there in charge of Brahe, one of his subordinates. His intention was to push on more rapidly with Wills and two other members of the expedition, named Gray and King. He left orders with Brahe that the depot of stores was on no account to be moved till his return. By good fortune there had recently been some rain in the district through which the little party had to travel, and thus, even in the country Sturt had described as a stony desert, occasional pools of water were found. Hence the adventurers and their animals suffered comparatively little from the want of water and were enabled to successfully reach the banks of the Albert River and from thence the northern coast. Having in that manner achieved the main object of the expedition, Burke was in a great hurry to return to the depot at Cooper's Creek; but the labours of their hasty march to the Gulf of Carpentaria had told severely on their animals and provisions began to grow scarce. One of the camels was soon abandoned as useless and a second had to be killed for food, as well as the only horse they possessed. Soon Gray began to faint and eventually died. Then, weary and weak from fatigue and starvation, as Burke and his surviving companions were, they lost nearly a precious day in the endeavour to bury the body of their late

comrade. This delay cost the lives of all the party, except King, for when at length they arrived on the banks of the Barcoo they found, from a notice he left behind on a tree, that Brahe had departed the previous day and had taken with him nearly the whole of the provisions that had been left in the depot. Worn out by suffering and the shock of the disappointment at Brahe's desertion, the explorers at first thought they could go no further; but at length, moved by the entreaties of their leader, they decided to make an attempt to reach the nearest pastoral station in South Australia. Soon one of the camels sank exhausted in a water-hole and was cut up for food. A fortnight later, the last camel perished, and though then a great way from the place they were trying to reach, they were compelled, in their weak state, to attempt to go forward on foot. They would have perished there had not the local blacks treated them kindly, bringing them fish and showing them how to make a kind of bread out of nardoo seeds; but, unfortunately, this hospitable tribe did not remain with them, and when it departed famine returned, which was only alleviated by such quantities of nardoo as the members of the party could themselves collect. On the 29th of June, about ten months after the expedition had set out, Wills succumbed, and two days later the end of Burke also came.

King, after the death of his leaders, was succoured by the natives, till the 4th July, when he was found by an expedition, under Mr. Howitt, which had been sent out by the Victorian Government to the relief of the party.

Howitt was again despatched to bring the remains of the explorers to Melbourne. This he did, and their ashes were accorded a public funeral and a fine bronze memorial was erected to their memory.

Apart from the fact that they had crossed the continent, the explorers had not died in vain, for the various rescue parties sent out after them explored a large part of the northern half of eastern Australia, and with great profit to settlement, for much of the territory seen was well adapted for grazing, and from that time it began to be crossed and recrossed in safety; and such might as readily have been achieved by Burke and Wills had they possessed but a reasonable knowledge of the Australian bush.

CHAPTER XXIII

SOCIAL AND POLITICAL EVENTS

Amidst the turmoil of political dissensions, between the two branches of the Legislature, the colony continued to advance, but not so rapidly as it might have done had there been no interruptions to the public business.

The railways, which had commenced in the year 1851 with a small length from Melbourne to Hobson's Bay, had since made satisfactory progress. This was particularly evident in the year 1862, when the two important inland centres of Ballarat and Bendigo were by extensions of existing mileage united with Melbourne and thus with the water front.

During the year 1867 the fiscal policy known as Protection was established, and was further strengthened six years later, by a large increase of duties. To that policy Victoria has consistently adhered.

At the latter period, Victoria went much further than New South Wales had gone in the Parkes educational policy of 1866, for in the year 1873 the southern colony made her system free, secular and compulsory; whilst, almost simultaneously, State aid to religion was abolished.

Pursuing the policy of the Federal Conference, held in Melbourne in the year 1880, Victoria, two years later, enforced drastic restrictions on Chinese immigration, and these at the instance of Sir Henry Parkes were made virtually prohibitive in the Centennial year.

Gratifying to all who had at heart the best interests of Australia was the support given, in the year 1883, by Mr. James Service, the Premier of the colony, to the action of Sir Thomas McIlwraith in annexing New Guinea; but as the Earl of Derby repudiated that action, the Germans promptly claimed all the north-eastern part of the island and, about the same time, most of the isles of the Samoan group.

The Victorian Premier was more successful in the efforts he made shortly after the failure of the New Guinea annexation to prevent France from obtaining the New Hebrides, though that was a matter of little moment to the interests of Australia.

The growth of the Victorian railways was marked in the year

1883 by a much more important addition than any they had hitherto received. This was the extension to Albury to connect with the railways of New South Wales. This important event was celebrated by a great federalizing banquet, whereat speeches of a thoroughly Australian character were made by the Governors of Victoria and New South Wales—that of Sir Hercules Robinson, for the senior colony, being especially noteworthy for its broad and pronounced Federal sentiments.

The banquet was one of the events whereby Sir Henry Parkes was leading his colony to join with Victoria to promote Federation.

As in New South Wales, great preparations were made in the colony during the closing years of the first century of the colonization of the continent to worthily celebrate the momentous event of the settlement of our race on Australian soil. The central feature of Victoria's share in this national celebration was the holding, in the Centenary year, of a great international exhibition, which was attended by vast crowds from all parts of the continent and by numbers of representatives of the peoples of many of the countries of the northern world. It was unquestionally the most important event of the kind that had been known in the history of Australia; but by some it is held that it inaugurated an era of extravagance in living amongst the people of Victoria that was a few years later to lead to disastrous consequences. However, as the century closed the signs of approaching evils were deep behind the veil of the future and as the Great Exhibition and all its attendant ceremonials passed into history, the colony stood a proud memorial of its splendid share in the great work that had been achieved by the Australian people during the hundred years from Phillip's landing.

What was true at the Centennial period is equally a patent fact to-day. There have, it is true, been occasional pauses in the onward march of the State, but the advance has, on the whole, been steadily maintained and, at the present time, with by far the smallest area of the mainland States, it far exceeds any one of them, except New South Wales, in population and wealth.

Up to the present time it stands easily first in the area of land under cultivation and from an early period was the greatest producer of wheat till the year 1910, when the parent colony took the lead; but in all other productions of the farm, except

maize, its position is barely challenged by the next of the sister States. In metallic wealth the position is also good, though not for some years past the leading one. In particular, till the year 1898, when Western Australia took the pride of place, it was by far the greatest producer of gold, and its total yield of the precious metal from 1851 to 1913 amounted in value to the enormous sum of £293,550,928, or nearly one-half of the total production of all the Commonwealth.

VICTORIA AND FEDERATION

In the long struggle for Australian Union, the part of Victoria was one of unvarying support of every movement that it was believed was making for the success of the cause. If at times there was hesitation in the adoption of Federal proposals, it was not from a temporary want of sympathy with the movement, but merely, because the Victorian leaders distrusted the honesty of purpose of those who were acting as proposers. It is true that, in many ways, the circumstances of the colony were more favourably adapted for the adoption of Federation than were those of any one of the other provinces; but neither the presence of a large and enterprising population on a tariff confined and limited area, nor the advanced state of manufacturing industry and the consequent need for a wider field for commercial activity was alone, or were unitedly, the chief source of Victoria's federal desires; but rather because, at that period, the people were commonly urged to a broad-minded Australian patriotism by their leading journals and continuously so by the teachings of the powerful organisation, known as the Australian Natives Association.

A Conference of delegates from the branches of that Institution, throughout the colonies, which was held in Melbourne, in the month of January, 1900, had a most potent influence in arousing interest in the Federal movement in the other provinces, and greatly assisted in smoothly paving the way for the National Convention, that was soon to follow it.

In the Federal Parliament Victoria is at present represented by twenty-two members in the House of Representatives. This is a reduction by one in the number that the State had sent to the first Parliament, and arose through the relatively greater increase in the population of New South Wales, to which the member

that the southern State was no longer entitled to was in consequence allotted, as provided by the Constitution for such contingencies.

From the establishment of the Commonwealth, Victoria has exercised a special influence in the affairs of the Union, owing to its chief city being the seat of the Executive and Parliament and, consequently, of the head centres of administrative activity; nor, in this connection, may the steady effect of the Melbourne daily newspapers on the minds of the members of the Government and Legislature be treated as a matter of little significance. However, the States generally, have each and all had an important influence on the affairs of the Commonwealth apart from that given by the number of their parliamentary representatives; whilst the offices of State—political, parliamentary, and judicial—have consistently been distributed mainly with a regard to the ability of the candidates and to their power in the minds of a majority of the representatives of the States from which they have come. For this and other reasons, there has in recent years been little active interest taken in the question of the removal of the Capital from its temporary location and, as the members of Parliament are, for personal reasons, not desirous of an early removal from their Melbourne homes to what has been described as a "Bush Capital," it is highly probable that some considerable time will yet elapse ere Melbourne will cease to be the seat of the National Government.

QUEENSLAND

CHAPTER I

ITS DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT

Previous to the year 1823 the whole of the great area that was long after to become the Colony and, subsequently, the State of Queensland, was wholly unknown and unexplored, except at a few points on the coast. By various Dutch navigators parts of its northern coast were visited at a comparatively early period in the history of Australian discovery; but it was not till the year 1770, when Captain Cook sailed along its eastern coast-line from Point Danger, its most southerly point, to Cape York, its most northerly limit, that anything reliable was known even of the coast of the great territory which was to form the Colony.

On his way northward Cook entered and named Moreton Bay; but failed to discover that a fine river emptied itself into the inlet, though several of those who were sailing with him at the time remarked that the appearance of the water in the bay seemed to denote that a large volume of fresh water was flowing into it.

More than thirty years were to elapse, after Cook's visit, before a further attempt was made to proceed with the examination of the northerly half of the eastern coast, and then Lieutenant Flinders, towards the end of the year 1802, entered Moreton Bay and, though he remained surveying it for fifteen days, he, like Cook, failed to discover any trace of a river. This also was the case when, after proceeding further north, he entered Hervey Bay; yet, in the first instance, he missed one very important stream and two others of lesser note in the second.

The next visitor was Mr. Surveyor Oxley, for, being in want of a locality suitable for a penal settlement, where the worst class of convicts might be kept, with little risk of their reaching the districts surrounding Sydney, where it was intended to keep only the less criminal of the imported prisoners, Governor

Brisbane, in the year 1823, sent Mr. Oxley in search of the site he required for the proposed settlement. This, it was laid down, must be at a considerable distance to the north of Sydney.

In pursuit of his mission Oxley voyaged along the eastern coast as far north as Port Curtis, without finding a suitable position, and thence turning south again, continued unsuccessful till he entered Moreton Bay. Whilst exploring the shores of that inlet he was accosted by a white man who was accompanied by blacks. This person described himself as an ex-timber getter of the Illawarra District, which is situated to the south of Port Jackson and, therefore, some hundreds of miles from where he stood. He stated that, with three other men, he was one day fishing off the shores where he had been working, when a storm arose which drove the boat out of sight of the land. Believing when the storm subsided that it had driven them south, they had steered north and after various adventures had landed on the coast. There they had continued on to the north till they arrived on the banks of a large river, along which they had to travel for a month before they could cross it; but that in the meantime they had met a party of blacks on the river who had received them in a friendly manner and admitted them into their tribe. Since then they had been living with the natives, who used them, one at a time, in their tribal fights. This, he said, accounted for the absence of his companions.

The tale of the man was wholly improbable; but what was to the point was that this self-styled ex-timber getter of the Illawarra district promised to lead the explorer to the great river he had referred to. His offer was accepted and thereupon Oxley was conducted to the mouth of the river, which was found at no great distance from where the vessel of the explorer was anchored. Up this stream Oxley, in one of the ship's boats, sailed for nearly fifty miles, finding it navigable for vessels of moderate tonnage for more than half that distance. As the country along its banks, for a considerable part of the way, gave promise of much fertility the explorer felt that he had made a useful and important discovery. He called the river, after the ruling Governor, the Brisbane, and on his return to Sydney reported that the district seemed in every way suitable for the site of such a settlement as the Governor wished to found. The result of this report was that he was sent in the year 1825, with forty-four convicts, their guards and the necessary stores and

material for a penal settlement. He fixed on a situation near the mouth of the river at a place called Humpy Bong; but finding the locality unsuitable, he removed his people to a position about twenty miles up the stream. This situation offered so many advantages that it seemed to have been naturally formed to be the site of a town. There the huts for the accommodation of the convicts, the stores and military barracks were erected, and thus arose the early structures of the village that was in due time to grow into the metropolitan City of Brisbane.

Soon the number of prisoners in the new settlement amounted to more than a thousand, nearly all of whom were men. The treatment of these convicts was distinguished by the greatest severity, of which barbarous floggings and brutal torturings were a regular feature. This, with the almost total absence of females to alleviate the rigours of their existence, rendered the life of the prisoners one of such misery as could only be compared to that which prevailed at Norfolk Island and in the equally awful penal abode of Macquarie Harbour.

The first exploration of the hinterland of the Brisbane settlement was undertaken from the west, during the year 1827, by Mr. Allan Cunningham, who after crossing the Dumaresq River proceeded in a generally eastward direction. On his way, he discovered and named the Condamine River, which he found was draining a large expanse of undulating country that gradually increased in elevation as he journeyed eastward. He saw with delight that its soil was of great fertility and admirably adapted for either pastoral or agricultural pursuits. In honour of the Governor, he named it the Darling Downs. He discovered, however, that its eastern limits were blocked by a range of precipitous mountains that barred his way to the coast, till he succeeded in finding at one place a gap in the barrier that seemed to offer a practicable route. He, however, turned back and proceeded to Sydney by the way he had come. In the following year, he determined to approach the Gap from the Moreton Bay settlement, and this, early in the year 1829, he successfully did. This partial break in the continuity of the Great Dividing Range and which is named after him—Cunningham's Gap, offered a practicable means of access to the coast to the settlers, who, following his report, hastened to divide and occupy the smiling pastures of the plains and slopes the explorer had named the Darling Downs.

CHAPTER II

THE MORETON BAY DISTRICT

During the year 1840, by an Act of the Imperial Legislature, the Colony of New South Wales, which then comprised the whole of the eastern half of Australia, was divided into three sections, known as the Northern, Middle, and Southern districts; but the first-named was more commonly referred to as the Moreton Bay District. It comprised all the territory within the confines of the future Colony of Queensland, besides a considerable area in the most southerly part that was not included in the colony when it was proclaimed.

The presence of convicts in the Brisbane settlement offered few advantages when free settlement began to spread in the inland country and to afford opportunity for escaped ruffians to terrorize the lonely settlers in the bush. Moreover, it had been decided that the existence of penal settlements should terminate on all the mainland of Australia. Accordingly, in the year 1841 the convicts were removed and, in the following year, the whole of the district was thrown open to settlement. The immediate result of this policy was a considerable influx of free settlers, who took up land on the banks of the Brisbane River and in the adjacent country. In the year 1843 they, with the townspeople, were sufficiently numerous to be entitled to send representatives to the Sydney Legislative Council.

By the year 1851, the population of the district exceeded nine thousand persons, more than one-half of whom were free immigrants. Many of them had been induced to try the Northern District through the advocacy of Dr. Lang, who personally arranged for the settlement in the district of a considerable number of its new inhabitants, and these people, as a rule, proved to be a most valuable addition to the population of the district. From the *Fortitude*, the vessel which brought them to the settlement, the populous suburb of Fortitude Valley is named.

CHAPTER III

AGITATION FOR SEPARATION FROM NEW SOUTH WALES

With the growth of population the desire for separation from New South Wales more than kept pace, for just as the Port Phillip people had felt that the time, expense and risk of the journey to and from Sydney made their effectual representation in the Sydney Legislature so difficult as to be practically impossible, so did the Moreton Bay residents find themselves in a similar position.

As early as the year 1846 a meeting was held in Brisbane to consider the question of separation from New South Wales; but as the young community decided soon that it was not strong enough to stand alone, the separation agitation was dropped for several years, after which it was renewed and became continuously active. Towards the end of the year 1851 a large meeting resolved that a petition should be sent to Her Majesty the Queen, praying for the establishment of the Moreton Bay District as a separate colony. By the terms of this petition the proposed colony was to include all the eastern part of Australia lying between the Tropic of Capricorn and the 30th parallel of south latitude. The petition was very largely signed by the colonists located in the district and was then taken to England by Dr. Lang. But was not successful, though from information received during the year 1855 it was practically certain that separation would be granted.

CHAPTER IV

SEPARATION GRANTED

But if the assurance of separation from New South Wales was received in the year 1855, it was not till the 6th of June, 1859, that Letters Patent were issued by virtue of which it became an accomplished fact and the Colony of Queensland emerged from the District of Moreton Bay; but even as the Port Phillip people had lost, when the Colony of Victoria was established, a portion of the territory that had been originally proposed to be

the Southern District, so were the inhabitants of Moreton Bay to find that part of the Northern District was not to be included in the Queensland territory; for instead of the line of the 30th parallel being observed as its southern limit, as it had been that of the Northern District, the boundary was fixed much further north. Though dissatisfied with this alteration, the Queensland people were so glad to obtain separation from New South Wales that they did not hesitate to accept what was granted; though it would perhaps have been better for Australia had Queensland and Victoria, respectively, refused to accept any reduction of the boundary fixed for the Northern District and that originally designed for the southern one; for then when separation was conceded, as it must have been, though probably at a somewhat later date, the territories of east Australia would have eventually been more equally divided, for northern Queensland would soon have insisted on being divided from the southern portion of the colony and this, then, most reasonable demand could not long have been seriously resisted.

As defined by the Act of 1859, the southern boundary of the colony, beginning at Point Danger, followed the summits of the Macpherson Range, the course of the Dumaresq River, and then that of the MacIntyre to the 29th parallel; thence along that line to the 141st meridian. On the north, its territory extended to the waters of Torres Straits and the Gulf of Carpentaria; on the east it fronted the Pacific Ocean, and on the west it terminated at the line of the 141st meridian.

Perhaps it might be considered as some set off for the alteration at the establishment of the colony of what had been the southern boundary of the Moreton Bay District that in the year 1863 the western limit of Queensland, above the 26th parallel, was extended to the 138th meridian; though this addition was only conceded because Queensland was much better fitted by position to control it than New South Wales, which, up to the year 1863, had claimed all the territory north of the 26th parallel that lay between the 141st and 129th meridians.

Whilst Queensland was willing to take the extension of territory as far as the 138th meridian, she did not want to receive the country westward of that line; but South Australia was willing, and hence she was empowered, till the Imperial authority should make another allocation of it, to administer the country northward of the 26th parallel and extending from the 138th to the

129th meridian; but it was not to be incorporated in the Colony of South Australia, but to remain distinct under the name of the Northern Territory.

CHAPTER V

THE CONSTITUTION, POPULATION, AND EXTENT OF THE NEW COLONY

The Constitution of the colony as it began its self-governing career was very similar to that of the parent State in that the nominee system was adopted for the choice of members of the Legislative Council; whereas, some of the other colonies started with and retained the system of election on a property basis for the members of their second Chambers.

The period for which members were elected for the popular branch of the Legislature the House of Assembly was five years, a term which each of the other provinces also started with; but, whilst they soon adopted the triennial system, Queensland long adhered to the quinquennial period, and this from no want of democratic feeling, but rather because each set of politicians when in office and power found it of more benefit to their interests than the shorter term with its more frequent and hazardous appeals to the vote of the people.

It was provided in the arrangements for the establishment of the colony that the Governor of New South Wales should nominate the members of the Legislative Council, who were to hold their seats for five years, after which their successors, chosen by the Governor of Queensland, were to be nominated for life. The Governor of New South Wales was also to summon those qualified to vote in Queensland to proceed to the election of the members of the Legislative Assembly. He was likewise to define the constituencies and to make all necessary arrangements for the election.

As the colony fairly entered on its autonomous career, the only fair-sized town within its limits was Brisbane, the capital, which then contained about 6000 inhabitants whose spiritual wants were attended to in fourteen churches; whilst their requirements of another kind were supplied by thirteen hotels. The popula-

tion of the whole colony was only that of a town of moderate size; for, in the year 1860, it was estimated to be 28,056, and yet to this handful of people was committed the control of an area of 670,500 square miles, a fact that meant that an enormous part of the colony was wholly untenanted by civilized man.

CHAPTER VI

POLITICAL EVENTS

The first Governor of the new colony was Sir George Ferguson Bowen, who arrived on the 10th of December, 1859, and the same day read the announcement of his appointment, as well as a notification of the choice of Mr. R. G. W. Herbert, who had come out as his private secretary, for the position of Colonial Secretary, and of Mr. Ratcliffe Pring as Attorney-General. A few days later, a further announcement was made of the appointment of Mr. R. R. McKenzie as Colonial Treasurer. These three ministers formed the first Responsible Government of Queensland.

The first Parliament of the colony, which consisted of twenty-six members in the House of Assembly, and of fifteen in the Legislative Council, met in Brisbane on the 22nd of May, 1860, with Mr. R. G. W. Herbert as Premier. At the outset, the Government found itself in the unenviable position of being practically without funds; for the Treasury was virtually empty, and thus the Ministry had from the first to rely on borrowed money for the ordinary daily expenses of government. In fact, during the whole of the long period of six years that the Ministry remained in office financial difficulties were of regular occurrence, mainly through the revenue being insufficient to meet the initial expenses of administering a vast and thinly peopled province; yet the receipts were by no means small, for even in the opening year the collections amounted to the sum of £179,589.

The only noteworthy measure passed by the first Parliament was one permitting the importation of Hindoo labourers. Fortunately the provisions of this Act were little availed of, and thus Queensland was saved from the fate of Natal. The Act was, in fact, not largely made use of because there was no urgent necessity for cheap labour for several years after it had passed, and then

the requirements of the planters were being met by the introduction of a less dangerous kind of labour from the South Sea Islands.

Very little of a memorable character marked the terms of the parliaments that followed till the year 1877, when an Act was passed regulating and restricting the immigration of Chinese. This measure was made more effective in the year 1881, and finally, as the result of an Australian Conference, the entry of Chinese was restricted under heavy penalties to one for every 500 tons of a vessel's tonnage, and this legislation was the work of a Government led by Sir Samuel Griffith, who is further to be credited with the repeal, in the year 1886, of the Hindoo Immigration Bill of 1862, and thus was the colony saved from being largely an Asiatic country.

Whilst Sir Samuel Griffith deserves credit for his part in these measures, Sir Thomas McIlwraith will be remembered by posterity as the Premier who annexed the whole of New Guinea unclaimed by the Dutch. This Act was carried out under his instructions by Mr. H. M. Chester, the Police Magistrate of Thursday Island, during the year 1883, but was disallowed by the Earl of Derby, the Secretary of State. Though as a result of the united appeals of all the Australian States except New South Wales, the Imperial Minister was induced to modify his attitude to the extent of consenting to proclaim a Protectorate; but, in the sequel, he disappointed them by dividing the unclaimed Papuan territory into two parts, separated by the Musgrave Range, and over the southern portion of these he sent the British warships from Sydney to proclaim a Protectorate. This Commodore Erskine, the commanding officer of the naval forces on the station, did, on the 6th of November of the year following the disallowance of the annexation made by McIlwraith.

The country lying on and from the northern slopes of the Musgrave Range was thus, as though it had been designedly done, left open to the designs of foreign nations, and one of these —the Germans—promptly took advantage of the situation by sending officers to raise their flag at various points along the coast, and thus was a powerful and ambitious Power allowed to establish itself in a large part of the land that McIlwraith had wisely and courageously claimed for Australia.

Happily, as we shall see, the time would come when this would be altered.

CHAPTER VII

THE FIRST QUEENSLAND RAILWAY

Clouds were already gathering on the political horizon in the second month of the year 1864, but that did not prevent the Government from proceeding with the undertaking sanctioned in the previous year by Parliament of the construction of a railway that might enable the residents in a part of the south-western country to have access to navigable waters. Unlike the first railways in all the other provinces, this undertaking was not to start from the capital but from the neighbouring town of Ipswich, from which Brisbane was then and for years afterwards reached by river boats. The proposed railway was a line to Grandchester, a distance of about twenty-one miles. It was, like all the future main railways of Queensland, constructed on the three feet six inches gauge, and was completed on the 31st of July, 1865, which was by no means bad for an infant State scarce five years old; and from this, the pioneer extension of the many to come, the Queensland railway system has grown so well that at the present, with about 5250 miles of track, it stands easily first in the Australian Commonwealth.

CHAPTER VIII

THE FINANCIAL CRISIS—THE RECOVERY THROUGH THE GYMPIE GOLD-FIELD

About the time the first railway was approaching completion, the colony was looking forward to a considerable crop of cotton, for the cultivation of that plant had been fairly extensively undertaken. This was owing to the fact that the growers in the Southern States of the American Republic were unable to send their cotton away on account of the blockade of their ports by the Federal navy, during the Civil War which, in 1865, had been raging for about four years. Under such circumstances, the Queensland growers, in addition to looking forward to a good

crop, were also expecting high prices for it; but ere the gathering of it had well begun, the Civil War came to a close, and then the value of cotton fell enormously. Not foreseeing this, the planters had speculated largely on the strength of the returns they expected for their crop, and as these—because of the fall in values—were not obtainable, they were unable to meet their engagements; whilst their difficulties were reflected on to their creditors in the towns, who were in many cases unable to carry on. Almost simultaneously with this trouble came the failure of the Agra and Masterman Bank, which the State was relying on to finance a railway loan. Hence the Government was, for some time, in difficulties also, from which it was only rescued by the expedient of issuing Treasury Bills, bearing interest up to ten per cent.

The general result of the crisis was that want of employment was deplorably great and the distress so acute that numbers of workless men in the country indulged in threats of looting the banks. Happily, when things were in this state, a prospector named Nash, during the year 1867, announced that he had discovered a rich gold-field on the Mary River. A great rush set in for the locality, which soon proved to be all that Nash had described it; for some of the treasures unearthed were of splendid value. In particular, one nugget weighed nearly a thousand ounces and was worth £3675.

Generally there was every appearance that Gympie, for such was the name the locality bore, was going to be a productive gold-field for many years. It has, indeed, continued to be so for fifty years.

From the first year of its existence, it was the site of a large and busy town, and to-day Gympie—for so, like the field, the town is named—is a place of considerable importance, which relies almost as much on the produce of the surrounding fertile lands as on the wealth derived from its auriferous ores.

Such was the local result of Nash's discovery of 1867; but, at that time, it had a far-flung effect on the colony's affairs, for simultaneously with the proof of the correctness of his statement, business revived as though by the stroke of a magic wand. With this, confidence in the future became wide and general and, thenceforth, the outlook seemed fair for continued progress.

CHAPTER IX

OTHER DISCOVERIES—THEIR EFFECT

A YEAR after the finding of the Gympie field it was announced that gold had been found at Ravenswood, a locality lying to the westward of Cleveland Bay; whilst in the year 1872 a far more valuable find was made in the discovery of a richly auriferous country situated in a district adjoining the neighbourhood of the Ravenswood field. This new gold-field was soon to become known to fame under the name of Charters Towers.

Other announcements made the year 1872 one specially important in the history of Queensland's mineral development, for, in addition to the Charters Towers discovery, a richly auriferous field was found during the course of the year on the Palmer River, which lies still further north than the former locality. Then, away in the far south, the richly productive Stanthorpe tin-field was discovered; whilst in the middle, south-eastern section, coal was observed at several places in the Wide Bay district, and copper, soon to be worked with great results, at Mount Perry.

To all these localities, in varying degrees, a movement of labour and business began.

At the Charters Towers field a large and flourishing town, which received the same name as the gold-field, speedily arose and at the present time it continues to be one of the chief of the Australian mining towns—and this though the returns from the mines, in and around it, are far from being as good as they formerly were. But whilst the future of this centre largely depends on the continuance of its mining industry, Townsville, its port, though vastly assisted by the business of the mines at Charters Towers and Ravenswood, with which it is connected by rail, has other sources of trade and commerce. For the railway to the "Towers," as the first-named of the mining towns is popularly called, extends away past it and far into the splendid pastoral country that spreads round the head of the Flinders River. To and from this country a great amount of traffic passes from Townsville's wharves, and this, with the business done with the mining towns, together with a considerable export of frozen meat, renders the city on Cleveland Bay one of the chief of Australia's ports.

Whilst the gold-mining in the Ravenswood and Charters Towers districts was almost wholly won by reefing, that on the Palmer River was mainly obtained in alluvial deposits. This caused the locality to be specially attractive to the class of gold seekers who have been known from the inception of Australian gold-seeking as "diggers." The host of these who were on the way to the field quickly caused a large town to spring up on the estuary of the Endeavour River, where the arrivals by sea landed and whence they subsequently received their supplies. It was named Cooktown, after the celebrated navigator, even as the river was called after his ship, which, as we have seen, was repaired there. This seaport, during what proved to be a short-lived period of greatness, was distinguished as the most Chinese town in all Australia.

The complete failure of permanent greatness to this port was due to the exhaustion, after a limited period of productiveness, of the Palmer diggings, and as the diggers rapidly departed from the field, the town on the Endeavour declined in business and population and seemed to fail in hope of the future. Nevertheless, for various reasons there is still a fair amount of business done, chiefly with Papua, and this will ensure its permanent existence.

THE RISE OF ROCKHAMPTON AND THE MOUNT MORGAN MINE

Whilst, as has been shown, towns of importance had sprung up wholly or in part owing to the discovery of genuine gold-fields, another one, which grew in time to be one of the leading ports of Australia, owed its first importance wholly to a misleading report that a richly auriferous field had been discovered in its immediate neighbourhood. This had occurred long before the discoveries just related. It happened, in fact, as far back as the year 1858, when news was received in Brisbane and the southern capitals that gold had been found in considerable quantities at Canoona, placed about thirty-seven miles from Rockhampton, which was then little more than a struggling hamlet.

The report attracted between fifteen and twenty thousand persons to the scene; but the locality proved to be barren of payable gold, and numbers of those who had landed at Rockhampton with high hopes had to return to that township penni-

less. Being thus without means to proceed with the crowd of disappointed diggers, who had still money to pay their passages back to their southern homes, the stranded gold-seekers sought and found employment in and near the village. There they soon became a permanent addition to the population and, as their numbers were considerable, Rockhampton quickly rose to a place of importance. For this reason the stranded gold-seekers are accounted to be the real founders of the Fitzroy town.

Whilst the town of Rockhampton owed its progress from a petty hamlet to a rising township through an unsupported report of a gold discovery, a real find of surpassing richness was made by the Morgan Brothers during the year 1886, about twenty miles from the town. There the discoverers observed that a hill of iron-stone bore visible evidences of the presence of gold, and closer examination indicated that the stone in the hill showed every probability of being impregnated throughout with the precious metal. Satisfied of this, the prospectors bought, at the rate of a pound an acre, an area which comprised the whole of the hill and this purchase they named after themselves, Mount Morgan. Associated with others, they lost no time in commencing to work the ores. A rich harvest of gold was the immediate result, and for many years the mine continued to yield returns of amazing value whereby the proprietors were enriched beyond their most sanguine hopes. Of the Mount Morgan wealth the port on the Fitzroy received a goodly share, for all the traffic of the mine with the outer world had to be handled on the Rockhampton wharves. This also had applied, at an earlier period and on a smaller scale, to the copper and stores from and to the Peak Down mines, which were discovered in the year 1862, much to the profit and progress of the infant port.

But apart from these advantages Rockhampton, like Townsville, received a benefit that will not cease with the end of the existence of the mining towns, for from its wharves a railway was made to the distant west which bears to the city, as to the shipping port, the pastoral products of a wealthy district, which embraces the whole of the inland of Central Queensland. Rockhampton has not only a railway extending for hundreds of miles to the western pastures; but by the completion of the North Coast Railway, it is connected with Brisbane and by lines extended from there, with the railways of New South Wales and through them with those of the Southern States. Unfortunately,

owing to the effect of the breaks of gauge at the borders of the several States, the connection is far from satisfactory and can neither be accounted commercially efficient nor nationally safe.

CHAPTER X

THE SUGAR INDUSTRY

Though the cultivation of the cotton plant was generally abandoned in Queensland after the close of the American War, it has never since been without some supporters, and at the present time is grown on a small scale in the Atherton and other districts. When it ceased to be one of the standard crops, its place was taken by sugar-cane, of which the first crop was crushed in the year 1864. Cane quickly not only occupied the localities where cotton had been planted, but was cultivated successfully much more extensively and despite predictions of failure through labour troubles, there is no doubt whatever that this industry will be of a permanent and highly successful character. At present the annual returns from the crushings show nearly a quarter of a million tons of sugar.

The cultivation of sugar-cane is chiefly confined to the rich lands on the coastal rivers. There a number of the towns such as Cairns, Cardwell, Mackay, Childers, and Bundaberg, together with some townships of lesser note, almost wholly owe their origin and prosperity to the sugar production in their vicinity.

For some years the work on the plantations was chiefly performed by South Sea Islanders, usually known by the name of Kanakas. They were content with food and clothes and a nominal wage; but the recruiting of them was often accompanied by great irregularities and though the Government took various steps to prevent abuses, the ignorance of the islanders and the greed of the persons engaged in recruiting them, continued to render the business liable to injustice and even to crime. Meanwhile an agitation was started in the colony for the absolute stoppage of the traffic, and this grew so powerful that Parliament resolved that the importation of Kanakas should come to an end. This decision caused so much discontent amongst the planters that by the effect of their efforts the Government was

induced to temporarily suspend the prohibition of the import of islanders and to permit the resumption of recruiting; but subsequently it was finally resolved that the introduction of islanders should definitely cease.

More recently the Commonwealth Parliament ordered and carried out the return of the Kanakas to their island homes. With the termination of the importation of island labourers and the certainty that all other forms of coloured immigration would encounter the same opposition as that which had met the introduction of Kanakas, the planters began to realize that a time would come when white labour would alone be available, and whilst some of them looked forward to this with dread and all with anxiety, subsequent events have belied their fears. However, when the stoppage of the island labour was about to ensue, through the action largely of the southern members in the Brisbane Parliament, the northern and central people whose coastal districts were the principal localities where sugar was produced, began, in the year 1885, an agitation for separation from the southern portion of the colony. This movement was for some time largely promoted by the business people of Townsville and Rockhampton, who hoped that their towns would become the capitals of two new provinces to be formed of the northern and central districts. At first this agitation gave great promise of being carried to a successful issue, but when it was found by the planters and by others with similar interests that the population of the two districts began to return a majority of members to the Parliament in Brisbane that were even more pronouncedly democratic and hostile to coloured labour, than those in the south had previously shown themselves, a gradual change came over the opinions of the wealthy and employing classes of the northern and central sections and thenceforth the separation movement no longer obtained their active support. Moreover, Parliament showed itself most liberal in the allocation of funds for the extension of the railways which had their termini at Cairns, Townsville, and Rockhampton. Thus some of the reasons for separation no longer obtained, nor appeared to be of importance, and gradually the movement began to cease, and has for a considerable time been wholly dormant. At present it seems likely it will not be revived till a general division of the larger States is accounted to be desirable in the interests of the nation.

CHAPTER XI

OTHER PRODUCTS AND THE CLIMATE

In pastoral wealth the northern State takes a great position, for the latest available statistics show that its pastures maintained nearly one-half of the cattle, more than one-fourth of the horses, and nearly one-fourth of the sheep of the Commonwealth's totals of 11,500,000 cattle, 2,520,000 horses, and 85,000,000 sheep. In these different items Queensland was first of the States in cattle, and second to New South Wales in horses and sheep. In wool production the State is also second to New South Wales. Nevertheless her great supply in the year 1913 was little more than one-fifth of the Commonwealth's grand total of 607,000,000 lbs. Still Queensland's share of the annual quantity is steadily increasing. In the products of the land, apart from sugar, the position is not nearly so good, for, despite the great fertility of much of her soil, Queensland has less land under cultivation than any one of the mainland States. However, agriculture is being steadily extended and it is only a question of time when the northern State will occupy a position in the field of agriculture similar to that it holds in the pastoral sphere. At present in maize alone is the position a fair one, for though the crop is only about half of that of New South Wales it is greater than that of all the rest of the States combined.

The climate of this favoured section of Australia is on the whole excellent. If it is warm over a great portion of its surface the heat is generally of a dry character and easily to be borne, and Australian vital statistics show that the average health of the people compares favourably with that of the inhabitants of any of the other parts of the continent. It is only close to the coast of the northern and central districts that the heat is of a heavy and humid nature; but there throughout the greater part of the hotter months the moist warmth of the coastal regions is tempered by the sea-breeze, which may be expected to blow day after day during the warmer hours, and thus seldom does the temperature register an excessive heat. For these reasons Queenslanders praise their climate—a habit they also have in respect to their State.

CHAPTER XII

QUEENSLAND AND AUSTRALIAN SENTIMENT

If in local patriotism the Queenslanders somewhat surpass the people of other parts of the Commonwealth, happily they firmly realize also that they are an integral portion of the Australian nation and that they owe a duty and affection to the great whole of which their State is a part, whilst the potent bonds of a valuable and increasing commerce unconsciously strengthen the intimate ties of blood and country. On the other hand, every Australian beyond the limits of the north-eastern State is proud to claim Queensland as a priceless jewel in the national tiara.

During the Federal struggle Queensland showed herself generally sympathetic and as the result proved when called upon to vote this was carried into action. Still there was undoubtedly an active opposition in Brisbane and other parts of the south, whilst at first the north and centre were somewhat apathetic till they understood what Federation meant and how it would affect their interests. Thenceforth there was no opposition in those great sections.

In reference to the Brisbane and other opponents of the Constitution Bill, the writer when starting on a campaign in its favour from Cooktown to Rockhampton, sent the subjoined letter to the "Courier," which is thus introduced by "Light," a fighting publication that was scattered everywhere in the State :—

"Mr. Robert Thomson has the following telling letter in the 'Courier' of last Saturday. It is worthy of the wide circulation that 'Light' will give it :—

"'In the South the Unionist cause had the bitterest opposition of the single taxers and extreme free-traders, because Federation involved an increased tariff for New South Wales ; and yet we find Single-taxer Lesina and Protectionist M'Donnell united in opposing union in Queensland—the latter because it involves intercolonial free-trade with a possible reduction of the Queensland tariff, and the former apparently with the fixed intention of making the Clermont miners continue to pay through the nose for every article they use and for the benefit of half a dozen concerns

in Brisbane, which are in no great hurry to share the advantages of a tremendous protectionist tariff with their own employees. Again, we find Sir Hugh Nelson asserting that his first and supreme objection to the bill is that it does not provide for a strong Senate; whilst some of the Labour men here, and all the Labour men in the South, make it a prime objection to the bill that it provides (which it does not) for an "all-powerful" Senate. Then some of the Labour men object to the bill because it does not provide that every man shall have a vote, even if it does that no one shall have more than one vote; whilst some of Sir Hugh Nelson's friends object to any interference with the vested interests in the plural vote. It is to be hoped that the anti-federalists here will import, to improve their inconsistencies, a few of the varied assortment of their kind whose discordant notes were heard to such advantage down South; but meantime Messrs. Lesina and M'Donnell and Sir Hugh Nelson and Mr. Unmack are doing very well, and if their mutually destructive arguments do not convince the miners, sugar-growers, and cattle-raisers of Queensland, together with the railway employees, wharf labourers, and other workers, that Queensland has much to gain both from a material and a democratic standpoint by joining the union, then your humble servant will be greatly surprised.'"

THE NORTHERN TERRITORY

CHAPTER I

ITS POSITION AND EXTENT

In addition to the political divisions that now form the six States of Australia, there is a great portion of its area that is not included in the limits of any of them and that is not, like each of them, a locally governed or autonomous unit.

This is the extensive country that lies between the 138th and 129th meridians of east longitude and which extends from its southern confines—the 26th parallel of south latitude—to the middle of the southern shore of the Gulf of Carpentaria and thence along the southern and western coasts of the Gulf to the waters of the Arafura and Timor seas, to its western limit.

The spacious country contained within those limits is known as the Northern Territory. It contains an area of 523,620 square miles, or more than one-sixth of the entire surface of the Australian Commonwealth.

Its length from north to south is 900 miles; its breadth from east to west, 560 miles; whilst its coast-line is estimated to be about 1040 miles in length.

On the water front a considerable portion of the country is low-lying; but at some distance inland it rises into a fairly elevated plateau, drained by several navigable streams such as the Adelaide, Roper, Daly, and Victoria.

CHAPTER II

ITS HISTORICAL RECORD

The coast-line of this portion of Australia was visited, as we have seen, by a number of Dutch navigators, at various times during the seventeenth century, and by Flinders, in the year

1803, when he surveyed a considerable portion of it, from the Gulf of Carpentaria to Melville Island.

So far as the British are concerned, he may be justly considered as the first of his race who remained for any time on its coast.

Fifteen years later, Captain King, whilst adding to the surveys made by Flinders, found and named the inlet of Port Essington.

In the year 1824, an attempt was made to make some use of the country, and to that end and for military and commercial reasons, a post was established at what was called Fort Dundas, on Melville Island, but was soon abandoned, as was a similar attempt, made in the year 1827, on the shores of Raffles Bay. The same result attended a third venture of the kind at Port Essington. This post, which in the year 1838 was established by Captain Bremer, promised for some years to be of a permanent character; but like its two predecessors it also was closed. It lasted long enough, however, to be in existence for some time after the arrival of the explorer, Leichhardt, who reached there during the year 1845, after a long and venturesome journey from the banks of the Condamine River, in Queensland. During the year 1839 an infinitely more suitable place for forming a settlement than Port Essington was discovered by Captain Grey. This was the splendid inlet of Port Darwin, which is one of the finest and safest harbours in the Commonwealth, if not, indeed, in all the world.

Till the 6th of July, 1863, the Territory nominally formed a portion of New South Wales; but for several years, prior to that date, it was separated from that colony by Queensland, and this made it apparent that the parent State could not satisfactorily administer the distant and almost unpeopled territory. Under these circumstances, Queensland was asked to take it over for a while; but having declined to do so, South Australia was requested to accept the responsibility "until the Imperial Government should see fit to make another disposition," and this the Province willingly agreed to do. Thenceforth—that is to say from the year 1863 till the early years of the twentieth century, when that other disposition that had been in doubt was finally determined, the destinies of the Territory were controlled and, on the whole, well and wisely controlled by South Australia. That Province had had a good claim to be entrusted with the government of the country, for it was mainly owing to the three expeditions she had sent forth under McDouall

Stuart, and one under McKinlay, that any part of the inland surface of the Territory became known to civilized men. Of these expeditions the Government of South Australia was directly the cause of those of Stuart, seeing that it was to gain a reward, offered by the Province, that he set out from Adelaide to attempt to reach the Indian Ocean. In the third of these ventures the explorer successfully reached the waters of Van Diemen's Gulf, an event that occurred on the 24th of June, 1862.

Through these explorations not only was South Australia entitled to bear the burden and honour of administering the Territory, but a suitable route for the great work of constructing a telegraph line from Adelaide, through the heart of the continent to Port Darwin, on the shores of the Arafura Sea, was discovered and laid down. This line was commenced in the year 1870, and despite enormous difficulties caused in transporting material over great distances of trackless wilderness and on account of the ravages of white ants, it was completed in the year 1872. So serious were the troubles caused by the termites that Mr. Todd, the superintendent in charge of the construction, had to abandon the use of wooden poles in favour of those of iron. Ere the line was finished a cable had been laid to Banjoewangie, in Java, and thus, when the South Australians had completed their undertaking, all Australia was put into communication with the northern world.

In another important way South Australia deserves well of the rest of the States; for as no other adjoining political section of the continent was willing to bear the responsibility of administration, if South Australia had been also unwilling it is highly probable that the Territory would have been made a Crown Colony, in which it would have been impossible for the Imperial Government to enforce against the wishes of the bulk of the Empire the policy of prohibiting coloured immigration. Thus, in all probability, South Australia saved a great part of the continent from being the abode of people of alien races. Such a population, as it grew in numbers, would have demanded, with foreign support, the power of governing itself and, having obtained it, would have gained the right of citizenship of the Commonwealth and thus of free entry from the coloured province into the rest of Australia. There a keen competition between the darks and the whites would then have commenced, which would ere long have reduced the status and earnings of labour

and so made Australia less and less a desirable field for European immigration. Nay, more, emigration from Australia of her own white workers would soon begin and thus, as hosts from Asia would ceaselessly pour in, it would be only a question of a limited time when the Anglo-Saxon race on Australian soil would be feebly represented by a handful of merchants, graziers and planters in the midst of a dwindling number of impoverished white workers, surrounded by a rising tide of aliens and half-breeds.

Whilst the origin of a calamity of this kind was effectually prevented by stringent restrictions on coloured immigration into the Territory, its proximity to Asia has not been entirely without effect in the character of the resident people of the country, for its scanty population from an early period after settlement began largely consisted and still consists of Chinese, with a sprinkling also of other Asiatics. Numbers of the Chinese were introduced in connection with the work on the length of railway to Pine Creek; but that policy was not, and is not likely to be, repeated, and through the steady operation of the stringent restrictions the coloured population ceased to increase, and recent statistics show that it has actually decreased.

The white population, amounting in all to little more than two thousand people, consists, at the present day, chiefly of persons engaged in or dependent on mining, cattle grazing, and Government work. Those in the employ of the State are mostly located at Darwin, the seat of the Administrator.

Though Europeans have, unfortunately, not tended to materially increase in numbers, a determination has recently been shown to promote settlement on lines that it is hoped will have a tendency to bring about better results.

The control of South Australia was finally determined by the passing, in the year 1910, of a Bill in the Australian Parliament by virtue of which the country was taken over from the southern State and accepted as a Territory of the Commonwealth, which also undertook the responsibility for all South Australia's debts that were incurred in her construction of works in the Territory. Amongst these, notable is a railway from Darwin, on the shores of Port Darwin, to Pine Creek, a distance of 146 miles.

By the Act of Acceptance not only was this railway taken over, but also one, 478 miles in length, extending in South Australia from Port Augusta to Oodnatta.

Another provision of the same Act was that the Commonwealth should, as soon as circumstances permitted, undertake to continue the Pine Creek line to connect with that cut short at Oodnatta.

As a small instalment of this great ideal the Federal Government has commenced an extension of the Pine Creek line to Katharine, a distance 54 miles further south, whilst surveys are proceeding with the ultimate purpose of proceeding, it may be hoped, with the promised and more ambitious work.

Under the Commonwealth the Territory is locally governed by an Administrator. The first officer holding that position was appointed in the year 1912.

His duties are similar to those performed by a Governor in the States, but, subject to the control of the Government in Melbourne, he has direct administrative powers.

Whilst there is no Legislature in the Territory, which is just, having regard to its small population and to the fact that the larger portion of the cost of government is borne by the Commonwealth, there are, as elsewhere in Australia, local councils with powers to raise money by the taxation of the unimproved values of the lands and to provide for all the works their funds will permit of; whilst all the provisions that obtain in the States for the protection of life and property and personal liberty are also in force.

CHAPTER III

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PURSUITS

Owing to its latitude and the absence of any sufficiently counterbalancing high plateaux, the climate is warm to hot throughout, with a heavy and fairly regular rainfall during the monsoonal season. This rainfall is heaviest nearest the coast, decreasing gradually, with the distance southward; but, except in the most southerly districts, sufficient falls in ordinary seasons for the requirements of successful pasturage. Along the coast the heat is of a moist character and tends during the prevalence of the monsoonal rains to be oppressive; but in the inland country, which is well elevated though not sufficiently so to be pleasantly cool, the air for a large part of the year is bright, clear, and in-

vigorating and in every way adapted to the European constitution. It would thus appear as though it would be well if all the children of a school age in the Territory were educated at institutions in the more elevated country and that, as far as possible, the adult females of the sea-board settlements should be able to pass a portion of the year on the higher lands. This could only be managed by the Government providing sanatoriums at moderate rates with cheap railway fares from and to the coast.

Whilst a great portion of the Territory is reputed to be unsuited to agricultural production, there are, along the banks of the rivers, considerable stretches of good soil which might readily be utilized for the growth of maize, cotton, sugar, rice, and other useful plants that are suited to the climate ; but, up to the present time, the amount of attention to agricultural production has been exceedingly small.

With pastoral pursuits the case is the reverse, for great expanses of land that are insufficiently fertile for vegetable production, supply abundant pasture, particularly suited to cattle and horses, of which the Territory has large herds, particularly of the former. Indeed, in cattle grazing the Territory takes a higher position than two of the States, and the prospect is that this position will be considerably improved. Sheep also do well in some districts, but it is said that in others they do not thrive.

One of the great difficulties that agriculture has to contend with is the want of a sufficient supply of labour. In fact, it may well be said that were there persons ready with a small capital to start farming or planting, men could not be found for their work.

The solution of the labour trouble seems to lie in the introduction of agricultural workers from Spain, Portugal, and Greece. The war, unfortunately, will for years forbid that any of the other southern countries of Europe will be able to spare a share of their people.

Next to its pastoral possessions the Territory supplies a respectable amount of wealth from its various mining enterprises, for tin, gold, copper, and wolfram. Nevertheless, competent observers claim that the resources of the country, in this field, have hardly been more than skimmed.

The labour difficulty that confronts the pursuit of agriculture

also applies in an acute form to the mining industry, and so also does the want of ready means of communication with the centres of population in the east and south of Australia, and this will not be satisfactorily adjusted till the Commonwealth has completed the proposed trans-continental line, or lines.

NORFOLK ISLAND

CHAPTER I

ITS SITUATION, EXTENT, AND CHARACTER

Situated in the South Pacific Ocean, about 850 miles from the nearest part of the eastern coast of Australia and about 900 miles north-east of Sydney, Norfolk Island deserves to be specially mentioned owing to its close connection, during the convict era, with New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. It is about five miles in length, three in breadth, and about twenty in circumference. Except in a few places where there is a more or less difficult landing, the island faces the sea with precipitous cliffs. It is of volcanic formation and consists of a series of hills divided by valleys drained in each case by a stream of good clear water and is throughout of great fertility. It was discovered on the 9th of October, 1774, by Captain Cook, whose account of its beauty and splendid soil so impressed the British Government that Captain Phillip was instructed to lose no time after landing in New South Wales about sending an expedition to occupy the island.

Accordingly, within a fortnight of the formal founding of the colony at Port Jackson, Lieutenant Gidley King, in control of a small community of twenty-four persons, of whom fifteen were convicts, was sent in the tender *Supply* to occupy the island and to utilize its soil as soon as possible for the purpose of providing a portion of the grain and vegetables required for the parent settlement.

King arrived at the island on the 5th of March, 1788, and on the following day, with the title of Superintendent and Commandant, he inaugurated the new dependency.

Later on his rank was raised to that of Lieutenant-Governor. He found the fertility of the soil all that Captain Cook had described it; but at first the crops obtained were only sufficient

for the needs of his own people. As the quantity of cultivation increased so did the production, and in no long time the settlement was able to despatch considerable quantities of grain and vegetables for the relief of the necessities of the Government in Sydney.

When matters were in this satisfactory state, Captain Hunter, who had succeeded Governor Phillip, strongly recommended the abandonment of the settlement of Norfolk Island, on the grounds of its great distance from the seat of government and of the want of a secure harbour and landing-place. This recommendation subsequently received the support of his successor and was approved, in the year 1803, by the British Government, by which orders were then sent for the closing of the settlement and the transfer of the whole of the community, free and bond, to Van Diemen's Land.

By the end of the year 1806 the removal was completed, and thenceforth the island, except for periodical visits of whalers, remained lonely and desolate for twenty years. Moved then by fear of French designs on the island, Governor Darling despatched Captain Turton, in the year 1826, with fifty soldiers and as many convicts to re-occupy the island and to make it a penitentiary for the detention of prisoners from New South Wales who had been convicted of offences committed whilst undergoing the penalties for which they had been transported. Thus Norfolk Island became the receptacle for doubly and often trebly convicted felons and, as such, it contained an even worse class of criminals than were to be found at Moreton Bay, or at any other place on the mainland of Australia.

In the year 1843 the island was declared to be no longer a dependency of New South Wales and as annexed to Van Diemen's Land, and this arrangement came into force during the course of the following year. Not long afterwards, however, accounts were received in Great Britain of shocking barbarities practised on the prisoners and of unmentionable depravities indulged in by them. When the extent of these horrors was realized by the Government it was resolved, once more, to close the settlement and to remove the whole of the population to Van Diemen's Land, and this decision was put into force on the 14th of May, 1851.

After an interval of three years, it was decided that the deserted island should again be utilized, but this time for the

purpose of affording a more suitable abode for the descendants of the mutineers of the *Bounty*. This community had for several generations been settled on Pitcairn Island, which, though fertile, was small and liable to suffer from the want of a sufficiency of water, and though some of the Pitcairners were loth to leave what had been, to the vast majority of them, the place of their birth, the removal was effected and to the number of 193 persons, of whom slightly more than one-half were females, they were, on the 8th of June, 1856, transferred to Norfolk Island, where the dwellings and lands were equitably divided between them. Simultaneously with this event the island was declared independent of the recently named colony of Tasmania; but as subject to the personal control of the Governor of New South Wales who, in this matter, was only responsible to the Government of Great Britain and not to his advisers in Sydney. This arrangement continued in force for forty years, and then the Government of New South Wales accepted the responsibility of administering the affairs of the island.

In recent years the island came under the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia, though the old system of local control of the internal affairs of the island was still continued.

CHAPTER II

THE POPULATION, CLIMATE, AND VEGETATION

The population of the island, being mainly the result of the mingling of Anglo-Saxon and Polynesian blood, is dark in complexion, and this hue is deepened in the case of the males by their constant exposure to the effects of the sun, winds, and ocean water; for much of their time is devoted to fishing or whaling, the latter being one of their most remunerative pursuits. In character, they are a simple, sober, and religious people, but through constant intermarriage they show a tendency to deteriorate in mental vigour and perhaps it may also be fairly said towards some laxity in moral fibre.

The distinguishing feature of the vegetation of the island is a species of pine which, when full grown, reaches to a height of 180 feet, with a circumference near the root of about nine feet.

It differs from all other members of the pine family in that the branches extend straight out from the trunk at regular intervals, gradually shortening in length as they approach the summit, and finally, a foot or more from the top, the branching ceases. This graceful tree is known as the Norfolk Island Pine. Specimens of it are to be found in most of the large public or private gardens and parks on the mainland of Australia and, in some places, particularly along the marine parades of the coastal cities, whole rows of this tree are planted not only for the shade and beauty they supply, but also as a check to the ocean winds and encroaching sand.

Before the opening of the first penal settlement on Norfolk Island, this fine pine clothed the whole of the island hills and valleys, which also freely produced the true New Zealand flax—a plant that was indigenous on the island, as well as in the group from which its distinguishing name was derived.

Generally the island vegetation is sub-tropical in character, and this also applies to the climate ; but for the greater part of the warmer months the heat is softened by the ocean breeze.

LORD HOWE'S ISLAND

Similar, in some respects, to Norfolk Island, but smaller is Lord Howe's Island, which lies between the larger island and the coast of Australia, whence, from the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, it is distant in an E.N.E. direction about four hundred miles. In shape it is long and narrow -the length being seven miles and the breadth from one-third to one and three-fourths of a mile. It is apparently merely the top of a giant mountain that rises up from the ocean abyss in two heights, connected by a neck of land, but whatever soil there is, being of volcanic origin, is fertile and produces abundant vegetation, chiefly of the fern or palm species.

As has been previously stated, the island was discovered by Lieutenant Ball, in the year 1788.

It was first occupied during the year 1833 by three white men and their Maori wives, but these people, who were brought there by a man named Poole, after some time returned to New Zealand. Poole, in the year 1841, brought some settlers to replace them. These new-comers largely depended on what they could sell in the way of vegetables and skins to the American whaling vessels which, at that period, frequented the island, receiving in return such provisions and other commodities as they required. As long as the whalers continued to find it paid to carry on their industry in that section of the Pacific, the island population prospered and this without any laws or regulations, other than such as they tacitly agreed to consider.

When things were at their best it is estimated that there were 300 persons on the island. There are now, according to the most recent reports, but about 120 inhabitants.

From 1843 on, for ten years, the island was from time to time officially suggested as a suitable place for a convict settlement. The last proposal, made during the year 1852, seemed for some time likely to succeed, but after much correspondence the subject

dropped—that is to say, it was not finally settled one way or another.

After another interval the island was visited by a magistrate from Sydney, and for several years prior to 1882 there was a resident magistrate, but during that year he was removed and the island placed under the Sydney Mines Department, which periodically sends a magistrate to visit it and maintains the whole island as a sanatorium—a purpose for which it is admirably adapted so far as climate is concerned; but life there is lonely, and, as might be expected, every day is almost a Sabbath.

The chief exports of the island are palms, onions, and lemons.

Like all islands on the Australian coast it has passed under the supreme control of the Commonwealth, but is attached to the State of New South Wales, of which it is politically an electoral part.

FIJI

CHAPTER I

ITS DISCOVERY, POSITION, AND CHARACTER OF PEOPLE

After leaving the shores of New Zealand, near the close of the year 1642, the great Dutch sailor, Tasman, determined to return to Batavia ; but it was his good fortune to make several important discoveries on his northward voyage, and amongst these the most valuable was that of an archipelago which, as he sailed past it early in the year 1643, he called the Prince William Islands. Long afterwards they received the name they now bear of the Fiji Islands. This archipelago is situated in the Pacific Ocean a little more than two thousand miles to the east of the southern portion of Cape York Peninsula, in Australia. It comprises more than two hundred islands, most of which are extremely small, many of them being uninhabited islets. There are, however, some of considerable magnitude, and of these the most important are Viti Levu, Vanua Levu, Ovalau, Kandavu, Taviuni, and Lakemba.

When first visited by Europeans, the archipelago was found to be inhabited by numerous tribes of savage cannibals ; but from the year 1835, when a number of missionaries landed in the island of Lakemba and commenced, at the peril of their lives, to preach the doctrines of Christianity to the people, the practice of cannibalism began to fall into disuse and was in time wholly abandoned.

The Fijians are the offspring of a mixture between the brown Polynesians who peopled the Hawaiian Islands, Tahiti, Samoa, Tonga, New Zealand and other archipelagoes, with the Papuans, a branch of the negro race which dwelt in New Guinea, the Solomon, and New Hebrides Islands. They resemble the Papuan race in having woolly hair, whereas the brown Polynesians have straight hair ; but in their features there is very little likeness to the Papuans, though much to those of the pure Polynesians.

During the year 1804, a party of convicts, escaping from New South Wales, arrived in Fiji and continued there for many years. They instructed the natives in the use of fire-arms and were the first of numerous bands of disreputable whites who taught the islanders few of the virtues of civilization, but almost all its vices. In the course of time other whites arrived who began to buy land and grow cotton, sugar, and maize. When the number of these settlers and the continual arrival of others who established themselves as traders, had begun to grow large the want of a Government capable of controlling this new population was much felt. The natives recognized this even more fully than the Europeans, and as early as the year 1859 the principal chiefs of the archipelago made an offer of the sovereignty of the islands to Great Britain ; but the British Government declined it and continued to be of that mind till the year 1874, when the Governments of Australasia, aided by Sir Hercules Robinson, the Governor of New South Wales, succeeded in showing that annexation was desirable. As at this time Thakombau, who was the leading chief and claimed, with some reason, to be a sort of king, had repeated, on behalf of some of the other chiefs, the offer made nineteen years before, it was decided that it should be accepted and instructions were sent to Sir Hercules Robinson to proceed to the islands and receive the formal surrender of the sovereignty. This the Governor did, arriving at Levuka on the 23rd of September, and from that date Fiji ranked as a British possession, with the status of a Crown Colony and ruled by a Governor who was also styled High Commissioner for the Pacific.

Sir Arthur Gordon was the first occupant of the position. He arrived at the seat of government on the 24th of June of the following year.

A little over two years later the first trouble of the new Government began with the natives, when four or five defenceless villages were burnt by an assailing force from the inland tribes. In these incursions a number of the well-disposed natives were killed. To cope with these outrages a force of loyal tribesmen was quickly got together, which quickly succeeded in quelling the outbreak.

Finding that the position of Levuka was not sufficiently central, it was decided to remove the capital to Suva, where it has remained to the present time.

CHAPTER II

THE POPULATION

Before it became a British possession, the native population had greatly decreased in number from the time of the first landing of the whites, and this reduction was vastly accelerated for a time after the return of Thakombau and his party from a visit they made to Sydney in connection with the transfer of the islands. An epidemic of measles was prevalent in Australia at the period and this malady, which is generally easily cured amongst Europeans, was carried back to Fiji by one of the natives and there took a virulent form. The unfortunate natives, when seized by the disease, abandoned hope, or rushed when in a violent fever into the nearest water. They died like flies in a wintry blast. When finally the epidemic ceased the decrease of the population became very gradual, and in recent years it is disputed whether it is still continuous; but whether it be so or not, there has been a great increase in the total population of the islands through the introduction of large numbers of Hindoo coolies, imported to work on the sugar and other plantations. A considerable number of these labourers who, it was thought, would return to India at the end of their term of service, remain in Fiji, where they either become small planters or engage in other occupations. There is little intercourse between them and the natives, but what little there is is prejudicial to the latter.

There are at present in the group some 50,000 Indians, as against an estimated native population of 90,000; whilst the whites are but 3,000 in number. Some, perhaps a majority of the Europeans, are anxious that the islands should be taken over by Australia or New Zealand; but the idea is one that the Commonwealth, at least, would hesitate to endorse, owing to the complications that would be liable to follow as between the tropical products of Queensland and those of the archipelago. Such difficulties would not obtain in the case of the Dominion, which is without a tropical area.

The climate of the Fijis is warm and moist, the soil of great fertility, and the vegetation, native and imported, as a natural result of the abundant warmth, rain, and fertility, is everywhere luxuriant; so that with a plentiful supply of cheap labour the cultivation of sugar, cotton, bananas, and other tropical and semi-tropical productions is carried on under the most favourable conditions.

NEW GUINEA, OR PAPUA

CHAPTER I

ITS DISCOVERY—THE PORTUGUESE AND SPANIARDS

A LARGER and in some respects much more important British possession than Fiji is the portion of New Guinea, or Papua that is claimed by Great Britain.

The island in which this territory is located lies to the north of Australia, from which it is separated by Torres Straits and the Arafura Sea. It contains an area of about 300,000 square miles and is thus, excluding continents, the second largest of the islands of the globe. Its greatest length from east to west exceeds 800 miles, with a breadth at either end of 200 miles, though in the centre it is much narrower.

New Guinea was discovered by two Portuguese navigators, Francesco Serram and Antonio D'Abreu, who, in the year 1511, saw and described a portion of the south-west coast. Fifteen years later another Portuguese sailor, named Don Jorge de Menesis, remained a month in what he described as a convenient harbour on the north coast. This is supposed to have been Humboldt Bay. There he had taken refuge from a storm which had seriously damaged his vessel. Whilst repairing the ship in the haven, he noticed the black, frizzly hair of the natives and from a Malay word equivalent to those adjectives he called the island Papua, a name it still bears in conjunction with the more commonly used designation of New Guinea. These three Portuguese sailors had advanced to the island from the west: they were to be succeeded by Spaniards coming from the east. The first of these was Alvarez de Savaedra, who had been sent on an expedition from Mexico by Cortez, in the year 1527, and who, in returning homeward to America, in the following year, met the north coast and sailed for 250 miles along it, noticing at various places where he anchored traces of gold. From this and

deeming himself to be the first civilized discoverer of the land, he called it the Isla del Ora, or Isle of Gold. Under that name it is shown on a Venetian chart of the year 1554, but the honour of giving it the name it usually bears fell to another Spanish navigator named Inigo de Retes, who, in the year 1545, observing a resemblance between the hair and appearance of the natives and those of the people of the Guinea Coast in the west of Africa, called it Nueva Guinea, or New Guinea.

Torres, in the year 1606, after passing through the strait that bears his name and without knowing that it was a strait, examined a part of the southern coast of the island and formally took possession of the country for the King of Spain.

CHAPTER II

THE DUTCH IN NEW GUINEA

Just before the visit of Torres, in the year 1606, William Jansz, in the *Duyfkin*, when in search of the rumoured strait that Torres was to discover, visited the west and south-west coasts and thence, keeping too far to the south, missed the strait, entered the Gulf of Carpentaria and sailed down the western coast of Cape York Peninsula.

Cornelius Dedal arrived on a part of the New Guinea coast in the year 1616 and Le Maire and Schouten in the following year. The latter noticed the presence of what he considered were several volcanoes and left his name to posterity in that of the island off the coast that bears it.

Subsequently, Papua was successively visited at various dates between 1622 and 1643 by a number of Dutch navigators of whom the most famous was Abel Jansz Tasman, who saw it in the later year.

Jacob Weyland, in the year 1705, entered and named Geelvink Bay after his vessel, the *Geelvink*, or Green Fish. This captain did a considerable amount of survey work and largely added to the then existing knowledge of the island.

During the year 1826, Lieutenant Kolff, whilst in command of the ship *Dourga*, saw and named the strait that is called after his vessel.

Largely through the reports of his visit, the Dutch determined to make a settlement at Tritton Bay; but the site was very unhealthy and, in the year 1835, it was abandoned. Another attempt was made during the year 1850, at Humboldt Bay, on the north coast and just within the present Dutch border, near where begins what later on was to be occupied as German territory. This attempt also was unsuccessful. At the same place, two years later, Holland made a third endeavour to establish a settlement; but this likewise proved to be largely a failure, for from the outset the garrison was embroiled with the natives.

Though claiming about one-half of the total area of the island, the Dutch have made but little use of their great Papuan territory and till quite recently the greater portion of it was unexplored; but it is stated that it contains some mountains exceeding, it is claimed by the Dutch, in height those in the eastern half of the island.

CHAPTER III

THE BRITISH—THEIR EXPLORATIONS AND THE PROTECTORATE

The first Englishman who arrived in Papuan waters was William Dampier, who sighted it on the 1st January, 1700. He came across the island near the coast and the strait that bears his name and gave an account of the natives he saw.

The first attempt to claim any portion of the island for Great Britain was made in the year 1793, by the commanders of two East India Company's ships-of-war, when these officers —Captain William Bampton and Captain Matthew Allt— landed a body of men on Darnley Island and formally took possession for Great Britain of it and the adjacent territory of New Guinea. However, no result followed from this action, which appears to have been wholly ignored by the Imperial Government.

An important discovery was made by Captain Blackwood of H.M.S. *Fly*, during the year 1843, when, in examining the southern coast, he came across the Fly River, one of the greatest rivers of

Australasia. This river enters the sea by a number of mouths, is of great length and volume, and is navigable for small vessels for a long distance from its mouths.

In 1847 Captain Owen Stanley made a rough survey of a great part of the southern coast and noted the existence of the lofty mountains that bear his name. In this range there were, he believed, several peaks rising to an altitude of upwards of 13,000 feet, one—Mount Victoria—is known to reach the altitude of 13,200 feet.

Eighty years after the first attempt to claim any portion of Papua for Great Britain Captain Moresby, in command of H.M.S. *Basilisk*, formally took possession, on the 24th of April, 1873, of Moresby, Hayter, and Basilisk islands, naming the first-mentioned after himself and the last after his ship. He surveyed the coast-line of the south-east peninsula, and whilst engaged in this work discovered China Strait, which separates Hayter Island from the Papuan mainland.

About the year 1882, there began to be fears in Australia that the German Government had some design of forming a settlement in New Guinea, and more definite information indicated that a German Company had been formed to occupy and colonise some portion of the island. Alarmed at this news, and seeing that fruitless efforts had been made to induce the British Government to claim the Papuan territory, Sir Thomas McIlwraith, the Premier of Queensland, determined, even without Imperial authority, to forestall Germany, or any other foreign power, in taking possession of the unclaimed portion of the island. Accordingly, on the 4th of April, 1883, a date to be remembered in Australian history, acting under his orders, Mr. H. M. Chester, the Police Magistrate, at Thursday Island, landed on the southern coast of Papua and with all due ceremony, took possession of the whole of the territory unclaimed by the Dutch. This action, though applauded and officially approved by every Government of Australia, except that of New South Wales, was repudiated by Earl Derby, the Secretary of State for the Colonies. At this, all Australia was moved. A Conference, or Convention, met in Sydney at the instance of Mr. James Service, the Premier of Victoria, in November, 1883. It was attended by representatives of every Australian colony and these, New South Wales again standing out, approved the action of the Queensland

Premier, and decided to communicate by cable urging that such action should be taken as would prevent any part of the Papuan territories that were not under the flag of Holland from being seized by an alien power. This powerfully supported request could not be ignored; but before agreeing to comply, or rather partly comply with it, Earl Derby inquired whether the Australian colonies would agree to bear the cost of administering a Protectorate of New Guinea and whether, if so, they were prepared to pay a subsidy of £15,000 per annum for the purpose. The members of the Conference had separated, but the Premiers of Victoria and Queensland at once offered to guarantee the payment of the sum mentioned, and their action in the matter was successively adopted by all the colonies, which agreed to divide the payment amongst them, on a population basis. There being no longer any excuse for delay, it was announced that the Imperial Government was prepared to sanction the appointment of a High Commissioner for New Guinea and, in the month of October, 1884, five vessels of the British squadron stole silently one by one out of Port Jackson and directed their course for Papuan waters. They met in Port Moresby, on the south coast of the island, on the 6th of November, and on the 1st of December 250 officers and men, under the command of Commodore Erskine, landed, hoisted the British flag, and with full ceremony proclaimed a Protectorate; but to the astonishment and disgust of the Australian statesmen who had urged the annexation of all Papua beyond the confines of the Dutch territory and who had agreed to pay the cost of the new possession on the understanding that an annexation, rather than a Protectorate, was to cover all the unclaimed portion of the island, it was found that the proclamation only referred to the southern and south-eastern coast, beginning at the 141st meridian and excluded the north-eastern territory as though it were to be left available for any foreign power that cared to take it. Germany did not leave the matter long in doubt, for officers were sent to plant the flag of the German Empire at various points along the north-eastern coast and, moreover, they proceeded to annex a number of islands off the coast there, of which the two largest from being known as New Britain and New Ireland became, respectively, New Pomerania and New Mecklenburg; whilst the German-claimed territory on the mainland became Kaiser Wilhelm's Land. Thus it was that what might without any trouble have become British territory

was taken by Germany, and thus it was that an ambitious and therefore dangerous foreign power was allowed to establish itself at the entrance to the northern gates of Australia.

However, the Australian Colonies were helpless in the matter, and they had to be content that, at least, the portion of New Guinea, facing the Australian coast, was barred against foreign designs.

Sir Peter Scratchley was the First High Commissioner of the Protectorate. He made his head-quarters at Port Moresby and entered on his duties in the month of September, 1885, having been engaged between the date of the proclamation and that period in assisting the Australian Governments in perfecting their defence arrangements. Unfortunately, his occupancy of the High Commissionership was very brief, for being attacked shortly after his arrival in Papua by malarial fever, he died.

He was succeeded by Mr. John Douglas, an ex-Premier of Queensland.

From 1884, the Papuan Territory was attached for administrative purposes to the Colony of Queensland, as a Protectorate, till the 4th of September, 1888, when it became an Imperial Crown Colony; but still connected with the Colony of Queensland.

The government was vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an Executive Council and advised by a Native Regulation Board. The seat of government was placed at Port Moresby, where a supreme court, magisterial courts, and the head-quarters of a considerable force of native constabulary were centred.

The territory continued with these arrangements in no way altered till the year 1902, when Letters Patent were issued placing the territory under the Commonwealth, which, however, took no steps towards taking it over till the year 1905, when the Papua Acceptance Act was passed by the Commonwealth Parliament. This law, nevertheless, did not come into force till the 1st of September of the following year, since when Papua has been a Territory of the Commonwealth.

The Commonwealth's chief officer is styled Lieutenant-Governor. He is assisted by an Executive Council, formed by the leading officials, and ordinances are passed by a Legislative Council, consisting of the Executive Council and three nominated unofficial members. All ordinances of this body must be approved by the Governor-General before they can operate. Thus the administration is reminiscent of the kind of government in

vogue in Australia before representative institutions came into existence.

Under this system business has progressed favourably, whilst the influence of the Government on the natives has been wholly salutary and thus law and order prevail through a wide extent of country which previously had known no control but that of the tribal chiefs of villages which were not seldom at variance and often at war.

A great event came to ruffle the even tenor of events during the year 1914, though it in no way impeded authority, or the daily conduct of affairs in the Territory. This was the Declaration of War by Great Britain on Germany and her allies. The result of that war, as has been related elsewhere, was that the whole of the German possessions in New Guinea and the islands off its eastern extremity were captured by the Commonwealth troops, so that there is every reason to believe now, that at the termination of hostilities, the long ambition of the people of Australia that the whole of New Guinea that is not claimed by the Dutch will be forever barred from foreign aggression and that it will permanently become a Commonwealth Territory, will be realized.

CHAPTER IV

CLIMATE AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS

With a warm to hot climate on the coast and in the lower levels of the interior and with abundant rains, the atmosphere, as in Fiji and the coast of the Northern Territory, is frequently heavy with humidity; but the heat and moisture acting on the fertile soil which is to be found in all the valleys that lie between the high mountain ranges cause the vegetation to be rankly luxuriant. Amongst the trees of the Papuan forests there are some found growing wild that in other countries only thrive through care and cultivation. Of these, tobacco and sugar-cane plants seem to be indigenous, whilst the nutmeg and cinnamon are also found in a state of nature.

Among various kinds of valuable forest arboreal vegetation prominent are sandalwood, ebony, and cedar trees and a species of teak which is specially adapted for furnishing timber requiring

great strength and endurance; but of all the native trees none exceeds in abundance and value the cocoanut palm. It is not only found growing wild, but is most largely cultivated, and the acreage under this tree is being steadily increased. Of the arboreal or other plants cultivated, apart from the cocoanut the chief are rubber trees, hemp, cotton, coffee, vanilla, kapok, cocoa, tapioca, cinnamon, tea, maize, and tobacco.

At the end of the year 1914 it was estimated that the plantations for these and cocoanut trees covered an area of some 350,000 acres.

Of other natural productions, edible birds' nests, *bêche-de-mer*, seed pearls, pearl and tortoise shells, gold, tin, copper, and sulphur are numbered amongst the sources of the wealth obtainable from the island, or from the floor of the shallower parts of its adjacent seas; but, except in the case of gold, but little white labour is employed in the search for any of them. In particular, Malays and Japanese practically monopolize the work of obtaining the pearls and pearl shells.

New Guinea is the head-quarters of the Papuan race which colonized the Solomon, New Hebrides, and Fijian islands and which, as stated in the case of the last-mentioned archipelago, is a branch of the negro family.

INTRODUCTION TO PART II

With the exception of a few matters, mainly of a specially State character, the events from the Centennial Year onwards, are dealt with in Part II of this work as portions of the general sequence of events in Australian history and not as being such as require to be chronicled under both State and Australian headings. The matters recorded are truly not of a State character, but rather Australian in their effect or proposed effect, though some of them happened in a particular province. Hence, from the conclusion of the special narratives of Part I the pages of this history will show only the nature of the work and the events related.

Part II—Section 1

CHAPTER I

THE FINANCIAL CRISIS OF '91–'93

At the close of the festivities that marked the Centennial year of Australian settlement, all seemed to promise fair for a continuous and peaceful period of uninterrupted progress and prosperity. If, in one part of the continent more than another, this was especially noticeable, it was in Victoria and in the metropolitan area, even more so than throughout the remainder of the colony. Allured by the appearances, a large section of the Melbourne citizens entered upon a career of extravagant living; the Government borrowed largely and spent lavishly; whilst building societies and other speculative institutions, of mushroom-like growth, successfully offered enticing inducements to the public to deposit their savings with them, and no sooner did the societies receive these moneys than they invested them in extensive purchases of lands in and near the city on which they proceeded to erect great numbers of residential and business structures, as though they really considered the population would increase with a rapidity unknown, even in the great and palmy days of the gold-fields. On a smaller scale, the same condition of affairs existed in the other eastern colonies, and for a time, in each case, all seemed to be going well and much as the speculators had hoped.

However, when it was beginning to be seen that there were no tenants to occupy many of the premises that had been erected, the values and rents of the occupied buildings dropped and thus, in every way, the speculators failed to receive payable returns for the outlay they had undertaken with the money of the depositors. About this time, the price in the European market of wool, wheat, and metals, heavily fell, and thus, towards the close of the year 1891, a crisis began, which lasted well on to

the end of 1893. In the early part of it, the building and other speculative institutions, with a few exceptions, fell like houses of cards; but never to rise again; whilst even long-established and legitimate banks were compelled to close their doors, in some cases, permanently, and just as Melbourne had shown the highest rise of the waters of the "boom," so there the ebb of the financial tide fell the furthest and most disastrously. Finally, the crisis was stayed when the various governments stepped in and guaranteed the notes and solvency of the existing banks. Thenceforth, matters began to slowly mend and in time things became normal.

CHAPTER II

THE ORIGIN OF THE LABOUR PARTY

But before the financial crisis was dreamt of and whilst all apparently promised well, a momentous event to all Australia supervened. This was the great maritime strike of 1890. During the early part of that year there was an extensive movement for the consolidation of some of the larger trade unions, on principles previously unknown amongst them. Up till that time, each trade union had conducted its differences with the employers independently of what other sections of organised workmen might think about the dispute or matter at issue. But what was called the "New Unionism," and which had just then come into favour, proclaimed the doctrine that "An injury to one union, or even to one workman, was an injury to All"; and thus, that every trade union and individual unionist should make common cause with any union or unionist at issue with an employer, or an employing company.

Many unions had not up till that time affiliated with the trades halls, or head centres of the labour organisations, and amongst these, was the Marine Officers' Association. The members of that body had certain reasonable grounds for complaint with the conditions under which they worked, and these their employers were not unwilling to consider; but the officers thought their chances of getting the concessions they sought would be improved by connecting themselves with the labour councils and hence they affiliated with them. Under the auspices of their

new associates, they applied for a remedy of their grievances; but the shipowners declined to confer with them or to consider their complaints, unless they withdrew their affiliation with the Trades hall. This the officers declined to do and, instead, went out "on strike." The employers at once made attempts to replace them with non-unionists, of whom many were available and with the necessary qualifications. When this was seen, under the influence of the New Unionism, the sailors, firemen, cooks, and stewards refused to work on ships into which the substitute officers had been introduced. Next, the wharf labourers, the carters, the coal miners, the wharf-crane employees, and the wool shearers successively joined the strike and thus, for the first time in her history, Australia was confronted with a labour upheaval of continental extent. The employers, who had meanwhile banded together in associations to resist the combined organisations of the workmen, made vigorous attempts to obtain a supply of non-unionist labour; but this, in most cases, was found to be a failure; yet a policy of inertia seemed likely to prove efficacious; for, by submitting to losses, the employers could afford to wait, whilst the strikers could not—at least, beyond a limited time.

Though the strike committees collected very considerable amounts of money the resources at the command of the strike leaders were found to be wholly inadequate for the subsistence of the large and growing army of men under their control. Moreover, great numbers of men who though unionist in sympathy, were not strikers, were thrown out of work owing to the closing down of many industrial establishments, through the want of coal, and thus these men were unable to contribute to the strike funds as they probably had been doing. Hence, with increasing demands to meet, the prospect was all for a large reduction of the already insufficient funds of the strikers. At this stage the marine officers, who had originated the trouble, brought it to a crisis by withdrawing their affiliation with the Trades hall, and, thereupon, after considering the position, the strike leaders decided to declare the strike "off" and this was everywhere done and work was resumed as it became available.

Whilst the men had been thus defeated, their determination to continue the struggle at some future time, or in some other way, was by no means ended. That other way was immediately offered them; for, just then, a writer in one of the Sydney

newspapers suggested to them that all was not lost as their strike leaders seemed to think. Let the workers, it was suggested, "Transfer their strike rooms from the Trades hall to Parliament House. They numbered two-thirds of the population and thus, if they would only resolve to work together at the forthcoming general elections, they might easily return a majority of members pledged to make laws in their interests and to regulate their conditions of employment much more effectually than could be done by any strike; whilst they might, even, if they so desired, coerce their employers by the forces of the State, just as, they alleged, they had, themselves, been coerced, during the course of the recent strike."

The idea was no sooner suggested than it was adopted. Meetings were held of prominent trade unionists who resolved to run candidates at the parliamentary elections for each seat where they considered they had, owing to the character of the electors, a fair chance of returning their men. In due time this, in New South Wales, was carried into effect with a result that astonished the promoters of the movement; for the labour candidates were successful in every locality where there was a large population of workmen and, in some constituencies, there is little doubt but that the number of labour members might have been materially increased, had there been more candidates, offering in their party's interests.

At this time, there were two great parties contending for office in the New South Wales Legislature: the Free Traders and the Protectionists. Between these struggling competitors, in the newly elected Assembly, came the Labour members with ample strength to give power to whichever of the contesting factions they decided to support. Resolving then, on a policy of support in return for concessions, they were able to force the Government of the day, to introduce such legislation as they desired; though much of what was, in this way submitted to the decision of Parliament, was either rejected or greatly modified by the Legislative Council.

The example set in New South Wales by the Labour Party, as the new political organisation called itself, was quickly followed in every colony and soon there was not a political section of all Australia that had not more or less Labour members on its roll of members, and this continued to be a marked and growing fact, as the years rolled by; though few of the most sanguine

of the early supporters of the rising party could have anticipated that it would one day command a majority of members in the representative Chambers of nine-tenths of Australia's political area.

CHAPTER III

THE DEATH OF PARKES—HIS GREATNESS, WEAKNESS, FRIENDS AND FOES

In the year 1896, the greatest man in Australia died, and one who was second to none of the foremost figures of the national history. He had with Lang fought the long battle for Australian liberties and had carried it on when that reverend patriot was no more. Strong, but weak at times, not always consistent, even as when, in one of his momentary aberrations, he, with the Parliament of New South Wales at his back, sought to seize the name of Australia for his State; but happily, the offence was not completed and this largely owing, it might be said, to the efforts in the daily press of the writer of these lines. But Parkes rose from his fall, greater than before, and resumed his interrupted battle for Australian unity—that unity which he, the grandest of them all who had fought in the limelight for the cause, was not destined to see. Thus it was that he passed to his rest, missing the honours and rewards of the triumph, even as others who had made its accomplishment the first ideal of their lives were to do, and who lived to behold, as the years rolled by, the fruits of victory in the hands of men who had never lifted a finger to win it; or, who having been well rewarded for their labours of the past, became so careless and neglectful in prosperity of Australia's national interests, that within a few years of the achievement of the union, there was such general dissatisfaction with the conduct of Federal affairs, that an attempted movement, in New South Wales, for the recall of the members of the State from the Federal Parliament, might well have succeeded and then a declaration of secession would have come.

Happily, this crime against Australia was frustrated; but for this, no thanks to any of the leading members of the Federal Parliament, some of whom even did not hesitate to state they

would obey the call of their State ; whilst others, whose previous record should have impelled them to denounce promptly the disloyal movement, were silent and left to the unrewarded patriots whose winged words, in pre-union days, had won thousands to the cause, the whole of the task of driving to their lairs the agents of disunion. The work was done and well done and thus was the Commonwealth saved in a dangerous crisis and even grew strong from the failure of treason.

But let that be. Parkes was not there ; yet may this be said : his death was the solemn event of the year 1896. His friends—and they were all who loved Australia—mourned ; his foes—they were many—smiled not. They knew that a man of men—a greater than they—had crossed the bar.

He was given a State funeral and his ashes rest at Faulconbridge. Peace be to them and to his spirit for ever more and may Australia long remember that lofty, leonine figure that bowed and sank under the weight of years and battle—a long, brave battle to make her a nation.

CHAPTER IV

SIR EDMUND BARTON, SECOND FEDERAL CHIEF, AND HIS LIEUTENANTS

Some time before the death of Sir Henry Parkes, it became apparent to him and to most of those who were prominently engaged in forwarding the cause of Federation, in New South Wales, that the weight of years, and other circumstances, had made it practically impossible for him to successfully carry on the arduous and incessant labours that were demanded of the leader of the movement. In consequence, it suggested itself to him, and was suggested by others, that he should lay down a burden beyond his age and failing strength. There was but one man to whom the " Mantle of Elijah " could be given. Parkes recognized this and sent for him. The man was Mr. (afterwards Sir Edmund) Barton and requested him to take up the leadership. The request was gladly acceded to. In every way the new leader was adapted for the position. He had for some years been the ablest and most prominent of Sir Henry's lieu-

tenants, and in that capacity had done a vast amount of efficient work. With the strength of the prime of manhood, numbers of friends in quarters where Parkes had none but opponents, and with forcible powers as a reasoner and pleader, he wanted few of the acquirements necessary for his new position, to which it cannot be doubted that he brought with his personal zeal for the cause the full aid of his talents, both to justify his call and to make his leadership conduce to success. Under these circumstances, he received the whole-hearted support of the personal adherents of the late leader and of the general body of the Federalists; besides that of numbers of previously undecided persons, who had stood aloof because of distrust, or dislike, of Parkes.

Some of the politicians who acted as Barton's lieutenants were of the very front rank in the public life of their State and it cannot be doubted that B. R. Wise as a persuasive orator, R. E. O'Connor as an orator and very popular man, and Bruce Smith as a man of ability and of great influence in the Conservative world, were towers of strength and brought recruits to the standard that the leader could not himself have reached.

With these politicians were a number of talented men in private life of whom apart from Cardinal Moran, Messrs. Garran, Bevan and others, the name of Henry Gullett, writer and journalist, stands out in bold relief as one whose work, for some years, was constant and effective; but the nameless writers who, in the "Sydney Morning Herald" and other Federal journals, threw their powers and intellects into the work may never be known. Suffice it to say that these with those who have been mentioned, bearing aloft the insignia of militant Federalism vowed to bring New South Wales, which had for many years been the stumbling-block of the cause of Australia, into the van of the fight for union. With this in their minds as it was in the hearts of those who, like the writer, had prepared the way for them, they and the thousands who had been won to the cause passed the closing years of the nineteenth century to see with the dawn of the coming age the struggle won and their goal achieved. It may be added that when that goal was reached Mr. Barton (soon to be Sir Edmund) was the first of those who had fought in the struggle, to be rewarded. He became Prime Minister before there was a Parliament in the Commonwealth and after three years in that lofty position, he accepted a seat on the High Court

Bench which he fills to the present day. With him was joined as one of the Justices of that honourable Court, his first lieutenant in the Federal battle, Mr. R. E. O'Connor, who had for several years been with him in the National Parliament. Of others who fought on the Australian side, with the exception of Mr. Bruce Smith not one remains in the political life of the Commonwealth. Mr. Wise, like so many others, obtained neither honours nor rewards for his great services to the national cause but fills to-day a great State position—that of the Agent-General for New South Wales. Whilst Mr. J. C. Watson who, at least, assisted materially by bringing the Labour Party into line, has long since been in private life. In the other States, also, few of the men who battled for the Union triumph are now seen in the high places of the Commonwealth. Some of them like Service, Kingston, Holder, Baker, Playford and Drake have passed beyond the final bourne; whilst others like Deakin—one of the brightest of them all, stands without the Parliament his eloquence adorned, and still others like Peacock are in State politics, and thus to-day it is true that with the exception of one man, the men who fought for the Commonwealth, in New South Wales, are not in its Parliament; that Queensland is represented there alone by Mr. Groom, Western Australia by Sir John Forrest, and of the other States if there be one of their present members who fought under the Federal standard it was in the ranks, and his name is, unfortunately, lost to history.

CHAPTER V

THE SOUTH AFRICAN WAR

In the middle of the year 1899 it began to be seen that the trouble which had, for a considerable time, been brewing between Great Britain and the South African Republics of the Transvaal and Orange Free State, was likely to end in an appeal to arms. This proved to be correct; for, on the 12th of October, war was declared; but three months before this occurred an offer of troops for service against the Boers had been made to the Imperial Government on behalf of each of the Australian States.

The British Secretary of State (Mr. Chamberlain) was astounded

at these tenders, and was in no way inclined to accept them; because he considered that the contingents that might be sent would be of little use. Nevertheless, as a concession to the offering colonies, he stated that each of them might send a small unit of 125 men—preferably infantry. This hesitating and limited acceptance was, before long, to be changed into an actual request for men and still for more. Meanwhile, the 125-men units grew into battalions before they left, and as there were yet thousands who wanted to go, pressure was brought to bear on the Governments to offer another contingent. This was done, and being promptly accepted, the force from each colony, though chiefly consisting of mounted men, comprised infantry and a battery of field artillery.

As the services of the Australians and New Zealanders were found to be far more suited for the operations in progress against the Boers, than were those of the Imperial regular troops, other contingents were asked for and promised till up to the end of the war, in February, 1902, the Australian colonies had sent 17,214 men and the Commonwealth, which had only recently begun its existence, a force of 1169, making, in all, 18,383 troops, of which many remained for over a year in the field.

New Zealand, as her contribution, sent upwards of 6000 men, and thus a total of about 25,000 men was sent from Australasia, and as there were nearly 47,000 men from the Cape, Natal, and Rhodesia in the field, besides a large body of Canadian and Indian troops, there were actually at times more local and overseas men in arms against the Boers than the total they had had when their power and forces stood at their highest limits.

Of the Australian mounted men, a number of units were described as "Imperial Bushmen." These men, being good riders and as "hard as nails," were found to be invaluable in following the rapidly moving forces of the Boers. Good as they were—and they were good—there are those who claim that their excellence was slightly excelled by that of the mounted men that New Zealand sent; but, whether that be so or not, there can be no doubt but that these men were a tower of strength to the British arms and that they and their comrades in other branches were a vital factor in ultimately bringing the Boers to reason. It may truly be added that but for them and the other overseas forces, the war would have ended far differently than it did.

But whilst this was so and whilst there were thousands of men in Australia who approved of the contingents being where they were, there were other thousands who expressed their antagonism to the whole adventure. These persons were described by the partisans of the war as "pro-Boers"; though they were really not so much in favour of the enemy, as they were opposed to the whole policy of engaging in foreign wars. Apart from that, their general principle, they generally believed that the Boers had done nothing that would justify the use of force to suppress them.

Though the malcontents included in their ranks a number of men such as Mr. W. A. Holman, the present Premier of New South Wales, and others who, in time, became Ministers of the Commonwealth and States, they were in a minority; or, if they were not, their opponents controlled nearly all the newspapers and most of the wealth of the country, besides the governing forces of the States. Thus it happened that the opposition was without effect and gradually ceased to be much in evidence, and here it may be advisedly stated that, from that time, the policy of taking part in the wars of Great Britain has not been seriously questioned in Australia.

CHAPTER VI

THE CHINA CONTINGENT

Following still further the policy of assisting the mother country in her warlike undertakings, a contingent comprising a naval brigade from each of the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, was despatched during the year 1900 to aid Great Britain and her allies in the task of suppressing the outbreak of "Boxers," in China. It was found, however, on the arrival of the Australians that the allied Powers had more than sufficient forces to deal with the insurrection and that thus there was little need for the additional troops. The event, therefore, is only noteworthy as the third occasion in which Australians had been sent to take part in an Imperial war.

CHAPTER VII

THE FEDERAL MOVEMENT, FROM THE CENTENNIAL YEAR TO 1900

For more than forty years, the history of the Federal movement was a record of failures and this mainly because during all that period the people were either wholly indifferent, or viewed with impatience the introduction of a subject that they did not understand and which they believed was likely to interfere with the consideration of matters in which they were interested. However, there were signs during the first portion of the last quarter of the nineteenth century that this state of affairs was likely to be altered; for about that time, here and there in the ranks of the people, there were young men who saw that the Federation of the Australian colonies was a matter most vitally affecting the national interests of their country and not merely an object desirable for certain political reasons. They hoped that their country would rise from the position of a subordinate and dependent colony to the status of a nation, either within, or, as an allied friend, without the Empire, and they saw that this could never be while the various political sections into which it was divided continued without a bond of union and to be a group of rivals rather than units of one indissolubly united body. Profoundly influenced by this idea, they set themselves to work with a limitless determination to convince their countrymen of the need for Federation as a preliminary to nationality and of the vast benefits that that status would confer on the Australian people. For a time, like all other teachers of a new creed, they were ignored or laughed at as dreamers and fanatics; but the good seed they were casting abroad was not all wasted. Some of it fell on good soil and germinated, and, as the months rolled by, a growing number of persons began to share their convictions. When, in the course of time, this was realized by the politicians, a number of the foremost of them also ranged themselves on the side of the new cause, and of these there can be no manner of doubt but that some were influenced by nobler motives than mere policy, and these men proved themselves a tower of strength to the rising cause; and though, even without their aid, the doctrines they eloquently preached under

the Federal standard would in all probability sooner or later have prevailed, for they were already too widely and enthusiastically accepted to fail to grow in strength, it is beyond question that the immense services rendered to the Federal cause in New South Wales and Queensland, where alone there was resistance of any moment, by Sir Henry Parkes and the other leaders we have mentioned in another chapter, not only greatly accelerated its triumph, but also rendered it morally certain. For this they are entitled to the lasting remembrance of Australia, and Sir Henry Parkes, in particular, the greatest of them all, well deserves to retain in the memory of posterity the title he obtained before his death of the "Father and Founder" of the Federal movement; though, as we have seen, neither term was strictly correct.

Whilst it would be a labour of love to fully narrate the various steps that were taken by the Federal leaders to bring their cause to a successful issue, to record each step of the powerful, persistent, and bitter opposition they met with and the wearisome delays and disappointments that beset them, would be less pleasant; but for neither record is space available and ample justice has been done to the subject by Mr. Wise and others in their stories of the "Making of the Commonwealth." An outline of the more important events of the Federal struggle, between the Centennial year and the successful achievement of Federation, is, however, essential and such appears in the following paragraphs.

THE FEDERAL MOVEMENT—ITS PROGRESS TO THE COMMONWEALTH

After much correspondence, a number of conferences and many delays, on the 2nd of March, 1891, a Convention consisting of the foremost men in political life in the several colonies, and who had been chosen by their Parliaments, met in Sydney to consider and report on an "Adequate scheme for a Federal Constitution." Sir Henry Parkes, as the Premier of the senior Colony and as "The immediate author of the present Movement," was elected President of the Convention.

On the 31st of the month, Sir Samuel Griffiths, the chief representative of Queensland and one of the ablest men of the day, brought up the report of the Constitutional Committee

appointed by the Convention to draft a Bill which, it was hoped, would meet the purpose for which the Convention had assembled, and, after lengthy debates, the report was adopted with some amendments, and thus was the first step of a really practical nature made towards the goal which the Federalists had in view. Nevertheless, there was a long and wearisome way to go ere that goal would be reached. The draft Bill, itself, was to be laid aside and apparently lost altogether ; but through all the storms that were to follow, it remained a notice and, at times, a clarion, urging to further action.

Six years later, a second Convention, this time directly elected by the people of the several colonies and which successively sat in Adelaide, Sydney, and Melbourne, considered the Bill of the Convention of 1891 and finally agreed to recommend to the people a Constitution which differed but little from the first one ; though vast importance was given to certain amendments that were made in the original scheme. The Bill, as adopted by this Convention, on the 17th of March, 1898, was to be remitted to a direct vote of the people of the several colonies. To this arrangement and to any action, tending towards proceeding with the measure, Queensland was not a party, though by no means moved thereto by the hostility that was fiercely in evidence in New South Wales. There the powerful faction of the opponents of Federation generally, and of the Convention Bill in particular, succeeded in having, contrary to the agreement with the other provinces, an amendment inserted in the Bill of the New South Wales Parliament that remitted the Constitution to the people's vote, a provision which required that at least 80,000 votes should be cast in the affirmative before the Bill should be deemed to have passed. Their idea was that as none of the personal influence that candidates exercise in ordinary elections, to bring voters to the poll, would be employed at the Referendum, a very large number of persons would fail to exercise their suffrages and, therefore, that the required number of voters would, in all probability, not be obtained. Unfortunately, their purpose was aided by general rain on polling day, and thus, though a majority of 5737 votes was recorded in the affirmative, the totals being : 71,965 " Yes " ; 66,228 " No " ; the minimum provision of the opponents of the Bill was effectual for the time in defeating the measure which had actually been carried by a majority of voters in a majority of the constituencies.

In the other colonies that had voted, the result was never in doubt; though, in Victoria, opposition was shown by a number of the farmers who feared that inter-State Free Trade would injuriously affect their interests, and by a considerable section of the trade unionists who considered the Bill was not democratic. The views of the former class were voiced by Mr. Allan McLean and those of the latter by Mr. H. B. Higgins, an able barrister. But backed as the Bill was by the whole strength of the Australian Natives' Association, as well as by both of the two great parties that then controlled the affairs of the colony, the adverse influence counted but little, and thus the Bill went triumphantly through the ordeal of the appeal to the vote of the people.

Though the Bill, through the device of its opponents, had failed to pass in New South Wales, it had received a majority in every colony and the total Australian affirmative preponderance was overwhelming in character. It was evident, under these circumstances, that the success of the manœuvre of the opposition, in New South Wales, could, at the most, but retard the eventual triumph of the Federal cause. This consideration appealed to Mr. G. H. Reid, who was Premier at the time in the colony and who, rightly or wrongly, had up to this period, been the doubtful hope of the direct opponents of the National movement. At his suggestion, a Conference of the Premiers of the colonies that had voted decisively to accept the Bill, agreed to certain amendments which he proposed in the measure which had legally failed in New South Wales; but, on the whole, these alterations were not of serious moment, or such as should have changed the attitude of those who opposed the Bill from purely constitutional motives. However, the Bill having been amended as Mr. Reid had proposed, it received, thenceforth, his hearty support, and, without any minimum provision, was remitted, on the 10th of June, 1899, to the electors of the colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania.

The decision of the voters was again unmistakable. In the three southern States, the affirmative majority was enormous; whilst the senior colony much more than quadrupled that which it had recorded at the first Referendum.

There remained to be known the opinion of the two colonies which had not voted and of these, Queensland settled her part of the question by a great affirmative majority, on the 2nd of

September; whilst Western Australia followed that example, on the 31st of July of the following year.

But ere the western and northern provinces had recorded their verdict, it was resolved in the States that had accepted the Bill, to proceed forthwith with the necessary steps that still required to be taken before the Constitution could be legally in force within their limits and this, not without a reasonable hope that the still outstanding colonies would ere long be joined with them in the Federal bond.

Accordingly, having been adopted by all the Houses of their Parliaments, almost without opposition, except in the Legislative Council of New South Wales, where the opponents of Federation made a final resistance, the Constitution Bill was despatched, in the care of a delegation, consisting of Mr. (now Sir) Edmund Barton, Mr. Alfred Deakin, Mr. C. C. Kingston, and Sir P.-O. Fysh, to London, where on the 9th of July, 1900, it was duly endorsed by the Imperial Parliament, and having received the Queen's assent, it, by a Royal proclamation, issued on the 17th of September, became law, as from the 1st of January, 1901, in the five colonies which had at that time accepted it: whilst before the close of the year it was binding throughout Australia, whose long divided units were thenceforth indissolubly united and were to be known no longer as colonies but by the loftier title of the States of the Commonwealth.

CHAPTER VIII

THE PROCLAMATION OF THE COMMONWEALTH IN SYDNEY

As these events became known in Australia, they caused a general joy that had marked no previous intelligence and steps were at once taken in the various capitals to fittingly receive the Earl of Hopetoun who, it was announced, would be the first Governor-General of United Australia.

Seeing that Sydney was to be the scene of the official landing, and also of the Proclamation of the Commonwealth, the proceedings and spectacles in that capital are deserving of particular notice.

There, on the first day of the twentieth century and, in the

great natural amphitheatre of the Centennial Park, the ceremony took place in the presence of an innumerable multitude of joyful people and, accompanied by their cheers, and by all the pomp and circumstance of high religious, civil, and military functions, it was brought to a close by *feux de joie* and by repeated salvoes of artillery which were, by arrangement, re-echoed around the Empire of Britain.

It was felt by all in Australia that the day had marked an epoch in History.

CHAPTER IX

THE FIRST PARLIAMENT AND THE CONSTITUTION THAT BEGOT IT

The first important official act in the life of the infant Commonwealth was the request, made by the Governor-General, to Sir William Lyne, as the Premier of the senior State, to undertake the task of forming a Ministry; but as great opposition was shown to this choice, owing to the fact that Sir William had been throughout an opponent of the Constitution Bill, he was unable to form an acceptable Administration, whereupon the Commission was entrusted to Mr. Barton, who succeeded in forming one, which embraced some of the foremost of the ablest statesmen of the several States.

The second step, to be recorded, was the convening by the Governor-General, on the 29th of April, 1901, of the first Parliament.

The third and, perhaps, by far the most important of the three, as an historical event, was the opening, on the 9th of May, in Melbourne, which was for many years to be the political capital, by H.R.H. the Duke of Cornwall and York, and in the presence of all who were famous and prominent in the public life of the Nation, of the first National Parliament of Australia.

Seeing that the instrument of government which had begotten that Parliament, was the heir of all the ages of Constitution making and that it was the deliberate fruit of the best thought of a people long schooled in the practice of Democracy, it was fitting that it should be one with as few defects as the circumstances of the political situation would reasonably justify, and

defects it undoubtedly had; yet for these, the workmen were in no way to be blamed, but facts that were as plain as they were insurmountable and the builders wrought in the face of these. They saw that the States had too long been endowed with independent power to be willing to sink their individuality in a union in which they would be reduced to a wholly subordinate position. Hence, if Federation was to be achieved at all, it must be by concessions to the prospective States of much that should be controlled by the National Parliament. Therefore, as the union of the colonies was of much more importance than that which was most equitable from the standpoint of Democracy, all who were Australians in sentiment accepted as essential the system under which an equality of representation, in one Branch of the Legislature, should be conceded to the States, irrespective of their population or importance, and that powers that should properly belong to the Nation, as a whole, must also still remain in their hands—or at least, till such time as the people, in their wisdom, should otherwise determine by an amendment of the Constitution and, for such a contingency, provision was available in the Instrument of Government.

But with such unavoidable blemishes, the Constitution provides as nearly as possible a noble exemplar of free government. It now ordains that both branches of the Legislature shall be elected on the basis of adult suffrage, without limits and without restrictions, other than such as would bar infants, aliens, and criminals, from the exercise of any claim to the right to vote.

The Legislative functions are vested in a Parliament consisting of two Chambers—the Senate and the House of Representatives. The Judicial power, in a supreme tribunal, denominated the High Court and in such other Courts as Parliament may decide on. The High Court, in addition to the ordinary functions of a Supreme Court, has also to interpret the Constitution, in cases of disputes as between the States or individuals and the Commonwealth.

The High Court was not inaugurated till the year 1903, when it held its first sessions in Melbourne under the presidency of the Rt. Hon. Sir Samuel Griffiths as Chief Justice, an office he still holds. Unlike any other Supreme tribunal, it is a movable court, but this fact, it may be assumed, will not continue.

CHAPTER X

THE SENATE

The Senate was intended to be the special representative in legislative functions of the States, as such. Beyond that, it was thought that it would resemble, in conservative tendencies, the Upper Chambers throughout Australia. In practice it has been neither the one nor the other; for if there has been any difference in these matters, as between it and the other Branch of the Legislature, it is that the Senate has been slightly the more Australian and democratic of the two.

It consists of thirty-six members elected by the voters of each State, polling as one constituency, six being the quota of each of the six State-wide electorates.[1]

The Senators, thus elected, were in every Parliament, except the first one, to hold their seats for six years. The exception, in the case of the first-chosen Senate, was made in order to inaugurate the system, provided by the Constitution, under which at future elections only one-half the Senators should be chosen at a time. With that object in view, one-half of the Senators, in the opening Parliament, were required to vacate their seats at the end of three years, and this having been done, the way was open for the election of a similar number and, thenceforth, for the perpetuation of the practice by which the Senate should be renewed by one-half at a time.

This system it was hoped would keep the Senators more closely in touch with the prevailing opinions of their constituents than would be likely to be the case were all the Senators returned at one time, and that, at the end of the long interval of six years.

With this object in view, it is evident that the framers of the Constitution did not contemplate a dissolution of the Chamber, as other than a contingency extremely remote, and though provision was made in the Instrument of Government for such a possible eventuality, it was a power only to be used for the settlement of disputes between the two sections of the Legisla-

[1] Whilst the number of Senators of a State may not be reduced without its consent, Parliament may divide the State-wide electorate into two or more constituencies.

ture, when all other resources provided by the Instrument of Government, had, in the opinion of the Governor, been finally exhausted. This contingency was held to have been arrived at, during the year 1914, when, with only a majority of one in the House and with actually none, when the Speaker was occupying his Chair, and when, also, the Opposition had a large majority in the Senate, the Prime Minister (the Hon. Joseph Cook) advised his Excellency that all the resources of the Constitution had failed to settle a crisis between the two branches of the Legislature and that, accordingly, he recommended a joint dissolution. His advice was taken and the Senate was dissolved, concurrently with the House. The effect of that action on the future of the Senatorial Chamber may be readily discerned.

Bearing that consideration in mind, except that taxation Bills may not originate in the Senate, nor may be amended by it, the powers of the two Chambers are legally co-ordinate. Still, under the system whereby a Ministry must command a majority in the House, but may carry on business in the face of a hostile majority in the Senate, the former must be accounted the predominant factor.

There is no property qualification required from candidates for the Chamber, and from the year 1907 the Senators have been paid a yearly salary of £600. Previous to that time the amount was fixed at £400.

CHAPTER XI

THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

As ordained by the Constitution, the House of Representatives consists, "As nearly as Practicable," of twice the number of Senators. By the interpretation that was put on this provision, the first House consisted of seventy-five members, of whom twenty-six were from New South Wales, twenty-three from Victoria, nine from Queensland, seven from South Australia, and five each from Western Australia and Tasmania, the last-mentioned number being the statutory quota that Original States are accorded, apart from whether their population may justify it or not.

The quota of members of each State, not requiring to take

advantage of the statutory minimum, is arrived at by dividing the number of people it contains, as shown by the latest Commonwealth returns, by what is held to be, as nearly as practicable, twice the number of Senators.

As obtains generally, throughout Australia, in the cases of the Legislative Assemblies, the members of the House of Representatives are elected for three years; but this Branch of the Legislature may, at the option of the Governor-General, with the advice of his Ministers, be dissolved at any time that the prevailing circumstances seem to justify the step.

As in the case of the Senate, there is no property qualification required from candidates for the House and, equally with the Senators, members are paid the present salary of £600.

The House was expected to be an exponent of the views of the people of the Commonwealth generally, rather than of those of its component States; but, as we have seen, if anything, the Senate rather exceeds it in that direction.

CHAPTER XII

THE REFERENDUM

Apart from the Executive, the Legislature and the Judiciary, the People themselves have a direct voice in the government of the Commonwealth. This is provided for by means of Referenda under which all proposed amendments of the Constitution, ere they can be adopted, must be submitted to a vote of the electors. Owing, however, to the provisions of the Instrument of Government which safeguard the interests of the States, as such, an affirmative majority of the voters, in a majority of the States, is required, as well as a majority of the totality of the votes. Without such a provision, it was held that, as the bulk of the population was located in New South Wales and Victoria, the Constitution might be amended on their affirmative, against the wishes of the voters of any one, or of all, the rest of the States; but seeing that the electors have never recorded their votes on State lines, the safeguard is not of such importance as the framers of the Constitution considered it to be. There is, indeed, no reason to believe that the people of the States will, on any

occasion, record their suffrages on provincial sectional lines. The Referendum has been three times put into operation. The first occasion was in the year 1910, when the electors were asked whether they were in favour of the Commonwealth taking over the debts of the States. The answer of three of the States, only, was in the affirmative ; whilst the total vote of all the States was adverse.

The two other references to the People were, as to whether they considered the Commonwealth's powers should be enlarged in certain prescribed directions. There was a substantial majority against the proposals on the first occasion—that is to say, during the year 1911 ; but at the second reference, in 1913, the proposals submitted were beaten by so small a majority that there seemed to be every probability that a third attempt would prove successful.

That third attempt has already been considered ; but the time chosen is deemed by many to have been not at all the most suitable ; for a large portion of the electors were away at the war and the attention of those at home was engrossed in matters connected with it. Moreover, the majority of the State Parliaments had taken such action as, in effect, for the time being, at least, shelves the proposals. As some of those who oppose present action are really favourable to the whole, or portion of the Government proposals, it appears to be only a question of degree and of time that divides the Commonwealth from obtaining an enlargement of its powers—an enlargement that a number of men of Conservative ideas are not averse from and which most of the Democratic Party consider essential. Probably, the war has more to do with the coldness or apathy of some of the Government's supporters than appears on the surface.

CHAPTER XIII

POWERS OF THE COMMONWEALTH AND STATES

Generally, it may be said that the powers of the Common wealth are specifically enumerated by the Constitution. Over some matters it has exclusive rights of legislation ; over others, it has concurrent control with the States ; but, in the latter

case, when a law of the Federation conflicts with that of a State the former is legally held to prevail.

In all, there are thirty-nine subjects specified in the Instrument of Government, on which the Commonwealth may legislate, either exclusively or concurrently with the States. Of the former class, the most important are :—

1. The Regulation of Trade and Commerce between the States and between them and countries beyond the Commonwealth.
2. The Imposition of Customs and Excise Duties.
3. The Granting of Bounties to encourage production and exports.
4. The Control and Maintenance of Military and Naval Forces.
5. The Granting of Patents and Copyright.
6. The Regulation and Issue of Currency, Coinage, and Legal Tender.
7. The Naturalization of Aliens.

In the case of one or two of these matters, the present exclusive rights of the Commonwealth only became such when it had legislated on them ; for, previously, the States had a concurrent power over them.

Apart from the thirty-nine subjects, enumerated in the Constitution, as liable to Federal legislation, any other matters that may from time to time be relegated by the States to the Commonwealth come, thereafter, within its exclusive jurisdiction and, equally so, after a duly adopted amendment of the Constitution, the Commonwealth becomes invested with the sole power to deal with the matter, or matters, that had been approved by a Referendum vote.

Broadly, the principle prevails that all subjects that are not definitely allotted to the Commonwealth, either wholly or concurrently with the States, come within the latter's domain. Thus, the sphere of the General Government is limited to certain matters ; while beyond them, the States are left with an undefined and unlimited field.

CHAPTER XIV

THE FEDERAL CAPITAL

Whilst it was provided in the Constitution that the seat of government of the Commonwealth should be located in Melbourne till a permanent site was decided on, it has remained there for sixteen years, and it was not till the 5th of December, 1910, that the future site of the national capital was officially determined by the issue of a proclamation, by the Governor-General, accepting for the purpose, as from the 1st of January, 1911, an area of 912 square miles, situated at, and adjacent to, the village of Canberra, in New South Wales. This territory had been previously surrendered to the Commonwealth by an Act of the Parliament of that State, which was passed towards the close of the year 1909.

Before the Canberra choice was made, other proposals had been strongly supported, and opposition to it is still maintained by two powerful newspapers—the "Sydney Bulletin" and the "Melbourne Age." The effect of their hostility has been greatly aided by the vast expenditure required for the prosecution of the present War and by the consequent need for economy in the outlay within the limits of the Commonwealth. For these, and other reasons of a personal character, it appears to be highly probable that a considerable time will yet elapse ere the capital will be removed from its present location.

It has been decided that the future Federal City shall be called Canberra, from the name of the site on which it will stand.

CHAPTER XV

THE BENEFITS OF FEDERATION

Apart from the great fact that it made the Australians one people, instead of six wholly independent and rival units, and that it opened to them the wide prospect of nationality, it conferred on them the priceless benefit of freedom of trade from sea to sea; it gave to their manufacturers, traders, and producers the

untrammelled use of the markets of a continent; it made their divided strength immensely stronger by the establishment of unity of purpose and control; it gave them a standing as citizens of a great Commonwealth that was not and never could be theirs as the inhabitants of rival colonies; and above and beyond these considerations, it ensured them the power to defend the whole of their continent by one law from the ever-present danger, of the colonial period, that the people of one political section of its area might resolve to admit to their territory the subjects of an alien power who, with growing numbers, might in process of time prove a serious menace to the whole of Australia.

CHAPTER XVI

THE LAWS OF THE COMMONWEALTH

During the sixteen years that have elapsed since the Commonwealth came into existence it has passed a number of laws of great national and humanitarian importance. Of the former, the most noteworthy are those dealing with defence and the maintenance of the policy of a "White Australia." Of the latter, the most deserving of attention are those providing for pensions for the aged and the permanently invalided of lesser years and for bonuses to mothers on the birth of their infants.

CHAPTER XVII

COMPULSORY TRAINING

For some time after the Commonwealth Parliament began to legislate, the attention of the members of both of its branches was almost exclusively devoted to questions that were of special interest to the Labour Party, which from the outset was a great power; though not, then, in a majority in either Chamber, and as, at that period, it showed an aversion to what it termed militarism, the Government of the day, being anxious to secure the support of the Labour members, as against the direct Op-

position, was not disposed to deal seriously with the question of Defence. It was not, in fact, till the year 1907 that this important matter was introduced to Parliament. This happened under the auspices of the Hon. Alfred Deakin, who was then Prime Minister. He proposed that there should be enacted a law rendering every able-bodied male in the Commonwealth liable to military service, and that provision should be made to compulsorily train the boys and youths and the men, up to the age of twenty-six. The proposals, as outlined by him, were submitted in a Bill during the following year ; but, for several reasons, the measure was not carried through the Legislature, and the question of Defence remained unsettled till the year 1911, when it was effectively dealt with by the Labour Government of Mr. Andrew Fisher ; for, it should here be mentioned that during the time that had elapsed, since the Deakin proposals had been formulated, a great change had taken place in the minds of the Labour members and this wholly from reasons connected with the White Australia policy, which it was held by them that the Commonwealth could not maintain, without adequate means to defend it, if necessary even by force of arms.

The proposals adopted and passed into law by the Labour Administration were in many respects similar to those that had been submitted by the Deakin Government, and with some slight amendment, in details, they remain in force to the present day.

Briefly, they provide that :

Every male inhabitant of Australia, not physically unfit, shall be required to be trained to military service, when :—

(*a*)	From	12–14	years of age in the	Junior	Cadets.
(*b*)	,,	14–18	,, ,, ,,	Senior	,,
(*c*)	,,	18–35	,, ,, ,,	Citizen	Forces.
(*d*)	,,	25–46	,, ,, ,,	,,	,,

Junior Cadets are drilled 120 hours in a year for two years. Senior cadets must attend four whole-day drills, twelve half-day drills, and twenty-four night drills.

The Citizen Forces undergo sixteen whole-day drills, of which not less than eight must be in camps of continuous training. Non-efficients have to attend additional years of training for each year of non-efficiency. Special periods of training are required of men in corps needing particular skill. Men, over the

age of 25, are only required to attend a muster drill, but must hold themselves in readiness to be called for service in case of a danger of hostile invasion.

CHAPTER XVIII

NAVAL DEFENCE

The question of the Naval Defence of the Commonwealth was first submitted in a practical manner to Parliament by the Government of Sir Edmund Barton in the year 1903, when he obtained the sanction of the Legislature to an arrangement he had made with the Admiralty whereby, on payment of an annual subsidy, a fleet of Imperial ships should be maintained in Australian waters. This scheme, however, met and continued to meet, with strong opposition from many patriotic Australians, who held that the Commonwealth should begin to undertake the care of its own defence by sea, as it had long been doing by land, and it was claimed by them that this was one of the great things that had been confidently looked forward to before Federation. These views were partly adopted by the Administration of Mr. Alfred Deakin, and so, concurrently with his military proposals, the Prime Minister submitted that, in place of the subsidy scheme in force, Parliament should consider the advisability of establishing a Fleet owned and manned by the Commonwealth and which, at the outset, should consist of six destroyers and nine submarines. But, like his military proposals, the Naval scheme was not proceeded with and it was not till the Imperial Conference of 1909 that a new and definite programme was adopted. It was then resolved that the Barton agreement should terminate and that the Australian Government should, for the protection of the Commonwealth, form a Fleet to consist of one battle cruiser, five light cruisers, six destroyers, and two submarines of the E class. The execution of this programme was vigorously pressed by the Fisher Government, which had largely been returned to power on the Naval issue, and thus the battle cruiser which was named the *Australia* was completed during the year 1911; whilst, by the close of the year 1914, there were in commission in Australian waters, besides the flagship, four light cruisers—the *Melbourne*, *Sydney*, *Encounter*,

and *Pioneer;* three destroyers—the *Parramatta*, *Warrego*, and *Yarra*, together with the two submarines—the AE1 and the AE2—both of which were soon destined to be lost while on active service One cruiser, the *Brisbane*; built at Cockatoo Island, and two destroyers, the *Huon* and the *Swan*, have since been added to the list.

CHAPTER XIX

OLD AGE AND INVALID PENSIONS

The policy of State payment of old age pensions did not originate in Australia, but in New Zealand, where the system came into force on the 1st of April, 1898. It was adopted by the State of Victoria, on the 18th of January, 1901; by New South Wales, on the following 1st of July; and by Queensland on the 1st of July, 1908; whilst by virtue of the Commonwealth Act of the 10th of June, 1908, for which Mr. Deakin's Government was responsible, one law for all Australia came into force, whereby, on certain conditions, every male citizen, of the age of sixty-five years, and every female, of the age of sixty, became entitled to receive a pension of up to £26 per annum. By the same law invalid pensions of a like value, payable to persons above the age of sixteen, who are permanently incapacitated from work, came into operation, as from the 19th of January, 1910. Similar conditions are attached to this grant, saving that in this case the period of residence in the Commonwealth must be not less than five years; whereas, in the instance of the old-age pensions, the residential qualification is twenty years.

CHAPTER XX

THE MATERNITY BONUS ACT

By the Maternity Bonus law which came into force during the second Administration of Mr. Andrew Fisher, a grant of the sum of five pounds is made to mothers, as promptly as the circumstances will permit, after the birth of each of their infants. Though much criticized by the political opponents of the Labour Party, this Act has benefited many whose circumstances, but

for its existence, would have made the expenses incidental to the birth of their children a serious consideration to them. It has undoubtedly been the means of preserving the lives of infants that might have been lost through the want of the means to provide them with proper attention, and that there may be no stigma attached to the receiving of the bonus, it is payable without any restrictions as to the possessions of the parents.

CHAPTER XXI

OPPOSITION TO THE COMMONWEALTH LAWS

It is not to be supposed that all the laws referred to in the foregoing pages were passed without opposition, both within and without the doors of Parliament. Three of them, decidedly, were not.

Thus the naval proposals were most strenuously fought to the last. It was held that the proposed Australian Navy would be useless; that it would be an evidence of disloyalty; that it might, even, be used against the Royal Navy, and much more, to the same effect, was uttered by some who at a later period were to claim calmly that they, and that they alone, were responsible for its establishment. The compulsory training law was denounced in unmeasured terms, as the introduction of a system of continental conscription, as an unjust interference with personal liberty and, indeed, all the arguments that have been recently heard in England were again and again brought forward. In this case, the opponents of the scheme included many who had fought and were still fighting against the idea of an Australian Navy; a section of extremists in socialist ideas and some who were influenced by religious motives; but, as a general rule, it might be fairly stated that it comprised all who were averse from any proposal that might tend to make the Commonwealth strong and respected at home and abroad. To their assistance came quite a number of missionaries from Great Britain, where the "Anti-militarist" partisans feared that the success of the compulsory system in Australia might tend to result in its adoption in England. These various opponents of the Naval and Compulsory proposals, being in most cases able

by their position to get a liberal amount of attention from the newspapers, were most persistent in promulgating their views; whilst, on the other hand, nearly the whole burden of replying to them was thrown on a few persons, who were practically the same people who had most earnestly fought for the establishment of the Commonwealth. These men were powerfully aided, at least, in the case of the naval proposals, by the "Sydney Bulletin" newspaper; but generally, apart from the space they accorded to the oppositionists, the conduct of the journals in that city, especially that of the "Sydney Morning Herald," was favourable to the proposals. One great newspaper, however, was almost as hostile to the proposals as they were submitted—and for some time after they became law—as it had been to the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

The Old Age Pensions and Maternity Bonus were generally approved; though attempts were made, but with little effect, to ridicule the latter.

CHAPTER XXII

AN ABORTIVE SECESSION MOVEMENT

Within two years of the founding of the Commonwealth there began to steadily arise, especially in New South Wales and Queensland, a feeling of vague dissatisfaction, which grew in time to be one of profound discontent with the conduct of the political affairs of the Commonwealth. Though this was most plainly evidenced by the actions and words of former opponents of Federation, it was not by any means confined to them; for a considerable number of free-trade Federalists were disappointed at the imposition of Protectionist duties; whereas, they had been assured by Federalist writers and orators that there was a very reasonable hope that federated Australia would more readily adopt the practice of the Cobden theory than the individual States were likely to do. There had certainly been a fair basis for this hope, seeing that it had been pointed out to the free traders by the writer and others, most of whom were staunch Protectionists, though Australians first and last, that under a system of inter-State free trade, the agriculturists would lose the only protection that was of serious value to them;

whilst they would be taxed for the support of manufacturing industries—even as they should be.

Disappointed in their expectations of the attitude of the farmers, the free traders, who had voted for the Union, inquired, "What have we got in return for our burden of taxation?" The answer was not forthcoming; for many of those who had enthusiastically fought in the struggle for the Commonwealth, were too sick at heart to supply it. They felt that the Governments of the period had abandoned—if, indeed, either of them, and especially the first one, had ever contemplated—an advance towards the national ideal and that, to all intents and purposes, one of the great objects of the establishment of a united Australia had been definitely dropped. Sir Edmund Barton was particularly blamed for this; rightly or wrongly, it was felt that he was mainly responsible for the fact that the High Court was not endowed with complete and final appellate powers, and that his naval scheme was less national in character than those which had obtained before Federation, when three of the provinces had navies of their own.

Emboldened by the state of opinion that was prevailing through these various circumstances, some of those who had, in New South Wales, been prominent in opposition to the Federal movement, thought the time was come, or was about to come, when they might readily retrieve their former defeat. The time grew more and more propitious for them and the cry of "Secession" began to be loudly and frequently heard. Alarmed at this, those who were Australians in heart laid aside their grievances and went into the battle to save the Union; for, to them, a poorly governed united Australia, was infinitely better than a return to disunion. Meanwhile, the enemies of the Commonwealth were not idle. They had a section of the Press behind them—some of the newspapers, indeed, that had fought a splendid battle for the Union. They organized and announced that a meeting would be held, as the forerunner of others throughout the State. If that meeting had been a success, it is possible—nay, probable—that it would have prepared the sounding of the knell of the Commonwealth. It was crowded and all was in train for starting an incendiary fire, which the promoters reasonably hoped would rapidly extend throughout the State. It did not succeed: it was baffled and turned into a ridiculous abortion, by a single man, who, apparently, under the idea that

all measures are just which save a nation, declared in the midst of the large and wrathful assemblage, that he had come there to formulate a protest against treason and rebellion. He did protest to such effect—both there and immediately afterwards, in the Press, that when, later on, another meeting was held in the Sydney Town Hall, by a more influentially known section of the would-be secessionists, it was indifferently attended, aroused no enthusiasm, and, thereafter, the disruptionist movement fell to the ground and there has remained to the present day, "Unwept, unhonoured, and unsung"; whilst the Commonwealth from that time began to be firmly fixed in the hearts of the people.

CHAPTER XXIII

OTHER EVENTS OF THE COMMONWEALTH PERIOD

Of the events since the establishment of the Commonwealth, some of which are not referred to elsewhere, the more important may be thus specified :—

The great disaster in the Mount Kembla mine, in New South Wales, during the year 1902, whereby ninety-five of the pitmen lost their lives.

The establishment, in the year 1906, of wireless communication between Queenscliffe, in Victoria, and Davenport, in Tasmania.

The beginning, in the year 1906, of free trade between Tasmania and the mainland States, through the ending of the five years' probation, the Island State had, in common with Western Australia, received at the inception of the Commonwealth, in order to allow her to put her financial affairs in order. As, in the case of the western State, the amount of her duties which she had been allowed to impose on goods from the mainland had been reduced by one-fifth annually. However, at the end of the five years, and during several years afterwards, the Tasmanians found their revenues insufficient to meet their expenditure. They represented to the Commonwealth that this was due to the fact that much of the goods consumed in the island were such as had paid duty at Melbourne or Sydney

and that, without some help, they could not carry on their government. The Commonwealth Parliament, having considered their claims, found that it would be advisable to assist and, accordingly, provided for a subsidy, to be paid in annual instalments, for a period of years.

The year 1908 was signalized by a visit of an American Fleet of sixteen battleships to the Australian capitals. This fleet was sent by President Roosevelt at the special invitation of Mr. Deakin, the Prime Minister. It was everywhere received with honour and welcome. In Sydney, it seemed as if the whole country was pouring *en masse* on Sydney Heads, on the day when the ships were expected to arrive. Such an immense army of people had, indeed, never before been seen, even at the time of the Centennial and Commonwealth celebrations. It was generally understood that the coming of "The Fleet," as it was generally known at the time, greatly assisted the Naval Proposals that were about to be considered by the Government of the Commonwealth and which were eventually adopted in an amended form.

Further important additions to the facilities for telegraphic communication between Tasmania and the mainland were made during the year 1909, when two submarine cables were added to the one already in existence.

The year 1910 saw the first High Commissioner appointed by the Commonwealth to represent Australia in Great Britain. Sir George Reid was entrusted with the Commission and held the position till the 10th of January, 1916, when he was elected to the Imperial Parliament unopposed.

The first Federal census of Australia took place in the year 1911. It showed that the population of the Commonwealth was then 4,455,005 persons—an increase of 1,280,613 since the previous census in the year 1891.

Penny Postage to all parts of the British Empire was another event of the year 1911. Whilst undoubtedly a great benefit to commerce, there are those who hold that it may be curtailed, after the war.

A munificent donation by Mrs. Walter Hall of one million pounds for benevolent and educational purposes in Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria deserves to be specially chronicled as one of the pleasing events of 1912.

A measure of very considerable importance, politically and

commercially, of that year was the establishment of the Commonwealth Bank.

During the same period, the Bank started to issue notes. Within a few years it was destined to have to finance for the Commonwealth, of which it is the National Bank, borrowings and expenditure far beyond any that had ever before been known in Australia.

An event partaking almost of national importance was the opening, during the year 1915, of the great ironworks of the Broken Hill Proprietary Company, at the port of Newcastle, in New South Wales.

The Rt. Hon. Andrew Fisher, the successor of Sir George Reid, as the representative of Australia in Great Britain, arrived in London, at the end of the month of January, 1916, and took over his duties, as High Commissioner.

This date nearly synchronised with the departure from the Commonwealth of the Prime Minister, Mr. W. M. Hughes, to London, there to take part in a Conference with the Imperial Ministers.

Coming as it did in the midst of the vast outlay occasioned by the War expenditure, the news that the estimated Commonwealth wheat crop for the year 1915–16 would amount to 170,000,000 bushels was most satisfactory, and none the less so that it was accompanied by the probability that the Victorian contribution would be 3,000,000 over the previously estimated total of 50,000,000 bushels, which, it might be stated, is a vast increase on the quantity shown in the most recent available statistics of the Commonwealth year-book. States the "British Australasian," in commenting on these facts: "Thus the farmers will promptly pocket £6,500,000, which will greatly stimulate trade; whilst the railway returns will look up and money will be plentiful for war loans—not to mention war taxation. The country was indebted first to the skies, which have sent bounteous rains in due season, and second to the energy of its people, which has ploughed and reaped in greater measure than ever before, in spite of its devotion to warlike tasks. It is really a fine performance to have added much to the land under cultivation, when hundreds of thousands of young Australians have gone abroad or are in training with the colours."

Lastly to be noted are the great historical achievements in the

world war, to the present date, of the Australian and New Zealand troops;—their splendid landing at Anzac, on Gallipoli peninsula, during the early morning of the 25th of April, 1915; their great battle of the Lone Pine, which lasted for four days from the 6th of August; their evacuation, without loss, of Anzac, concurrently with that of the Imperial forces, at Suvla Bay, during the night of the 19th of December; the withdrawal, with complete success, on the 7th and 8th of January, 1916, of a small remnant of them and of a competent force of Imperial soldiers that had been left at Helles Point—the last portion of the Gallipoli peninsula that the Imperial commanders had previously deemed it advisable to hold; the transfer of the Anzac forces from Gallipoli to Egypt; their subsequent removal to northern France; their splendid achievements in that theatre, during July and August at Pozières, Delville Wood, and the Windmill Ridge, and finally, the grand work from Romani to Bir-el-Abd, during the first half of the month of August, of the mounted brigades that had been left in Egypt.

It was officially stated that at the end of the month of November, 1915, Australia's direct expenditure for naval and military purposes connected with the war amounted to seventy-two millions of pounds, and this was altogether apart from outlays of other kinds of which the war had been the direct cause. At the end of the month of February, 1916, it was estimated that the direct naval and military outlay would probably exceed eighty-five millions of pounds.

DEATH OF CARDINAL MORAN

In the death of Cardinal Moran, during the year 1911, the Roman Catholics of Australia lost the greatest prelate their Church had ever had; whilst the people of the Commonwealth missed a man of the most eminent abilities and, what is far more important, one who loved and served his adopted country more truly and effectively than a vast majority of those who claimed Australian birth. This in no way refers to the Cardinal's political views as a prelate of his Church; for in some of these he was at variance with those who venerated him for the part he took in matters of national moment. He was, like Wentworth, Parkes, Higginbotham, and McIlwraith, a staunch supporter of Australia's right to the complete control of her own affairs and a sterling patriot who threw his heart into the work of bringing about Australian unity. He was, in fact, so interested in his work, in that great cause, that he stood as one of the candidates for the first National Federal Convention; but, unfortunately, the sectarian issue was raised against him and, at that time, it was ever a potent factor when aroused. As a result, he was unsuccessful. It is even doubtful had religious animosity not come into operation whether he would have been elected; for Australians had already begun that system of voting for a "ticket" rather than for individuals, which has prevailed since; though there are signs that it will shortly be shaken to its foundations by issues that are being engendered by the present war and which are likely to become a living force.

The Cardinal, not being a member of a "bunch," or a party nomination, it was, therefore, his fate to be defeated and thus, like others who worked and fought for the good cause, his sole reward for his past labours was the consciousness that he had done what one man could to forward a great and noble ideal. Nay, what he could do was more than what the immense majority of men with the best of zeal and intentions could do; for his support to a movement outside of the run of ecclesiastical matters meant that thousands of the rank and file of his own denomination became interested in it, and Federation and kindred national matters were of an order that did not readily appeal to the masses in the midst of questions directly affecting their daily lives. For this

reason, as well as for the direct effect of his personal services to the cause of Australian Nationalism, the Commonwealth owes much to the prelate who passed to his rest on the 16th of August, 1911, and left a gap in the national arena which Australia was to sadly feel in the coming years.

The following open letter for the Cardinal was addressed through the "Catholic Press," shortly before his end approached.

"Sir,—If in the years to come, when great achievements that are now but aspirations have become historical events, the stranger should ask the children of Australia to name some of the men who deserve to be ranked as the founders of the Australian nation, it is my earnest hope that among the great names they will quote will be that of Patrick Francis, Cardinal Moran.

"There lives no man to-day who has given a more unremitting attention than myself to what has been done during the last thirty years to raise our country from a congerie of jarring colonies to the position of a potential nation, and I know better than most, that the great Cardinal has, from time to time, rendered services of the most priceless value to the great cause of Australian nationality.

"For a long time, the enemies of that ideal did not notice the true inwardness of what the Cardinal was so splendidly assisting; but comments made on the recent announcement that the children of the Church should be taught Australian patriotism, on one day of the year, have shown that the dull-witted foe has at last awakened to the fact that Australian national sentiment has a powerful ally in the Cardinal and that, apart from his duties as the chief shepherd of a great Church, he can spare time to teach his flock to do their duty in the establishing securely and nobly of a great Commonwealth.

"The enemy has truly, at last, awakened to the fact that a prince of the Catholic Church may be a democrat, and even a leader of democracy in secular things. They perceive, but with jaundiced eyes that distort the truth, that whilst caring for the interests of his people in the world to come, he may also tenderly regard their welfare in this, and that, to that end, he desires to enable them to be worthy citizens of a nation, which, under his leadership, they may do their part, and that a magnificent one, to nobly found, and which, whilst holding it safe amidst

the storms of to-day, they shall also teach their children to guard with the best of their blood and intellect, through every peril and vicissitude of the future.

"Though not of his fold, I hold your great Cardinal in reverence and, some day, when this heart of mine, which beats only for Australia, shall have been stilled for ever, may it be mine to see in spirit the work that he did for my country remembered by those who enjoy the glory of the nation he toiled to found.

"But the end is not yet. Much has still to be achieved, and so I would say, through you, to the great patriot of whom I write, 'On! my lord Cardinal, on! You have the chance that the Press now generally denies to others in a humbler position. On! unto the end. Stand up for our country against the many-headed foe, and when, in the fulness of time, you cease from your labours, believe me, your last hours will be soothed and gladdened by what you did and tried to do for our Australia.'—I am, yours, etc., ROBERT THOMSON."

PART II—SECTION 2

THE GREAT WAR

AUSTRALIA'S AND NEW ZEALAND'S PART

CHAPTER I

THE OUTBREAK OF THE WAR

IN the early part of the year 1914, if anyone had foretold that within a few months the Commonwealth and Dominion would be plunged in a terrible war of vast dimensions, he would have been smiled at as an idle dreamer of dreams. But, as time passed, it began to be apparent that such a prediction might prove correct in the end; for a serious state of affairs was in existence in Europe. First came the news that the heir to the Austrian throne had been assassinated by a Serbian officer, and that the Dual Monarchy had, in consequence, formulated such demands on the Government of Serbia as could not be granted by a sovereign State without humiliation, approaching dishonour. Nevertheless, it was learned that the Serbians had consented to concede a large portion of the demands; but that the remainder they had bravely declined to yield. Successively, it was then learned that the Austrians, near the end of July, had declared war on the Serbians; that Russia had decided to come to the aid of the little Slav State; that Germany as the ally of Austria had declared war against Russia, and that, similarly, France as the ally of Russia had been drawn into the war. Then it became known that the Emperor of Germany had made a demand on Belgium for the right of his forces to pass through her territory, a demand the Belgians promptly refused, and that thereupon the Germans had invaded Belgium, with the intent to force their way through.

Lastly, it was learned that at this stage, Great Britain, which had endeavoured till then to have hostilities confined to the eastern and southern frontiers of the allied Central Powers, had at once taken action by declaring war against the German and Austrian Empires. This was on the 4th of August, and thus began the greatest of wars in modern history.

CHAPTER II

THE OFFERS OF TROOPS

As the news of these events became successively known in Australia and New Zealand, there was profound feeling through each community, and as the people were this time, apparently, all of one mind, there was nothing to be heard but a warm approval, when it was learned, on the 3rd of August, or before the actual declaration of war had taken place, that Mr. Joseph Cook, the then Prime Minister of the Commonwealth, had offered, in the event of war, to send 20,000 troops to the aid of the mother country, and that Mr. Massey, the New Zealand Prime Minister, had simultaneously, and in similar terms, offered 10,000 men. A few days later, it was announced that the offers had been accepted.

But, as the preparation of such forces in two countries, where there were no large standing armies, would take some time, it was considered that something of importance might be effected against the enemy nearer home than Europe and by small and quickly available units. Accordingly, after a writer had suggested to the military authorities that such forces might, without much difficulty or loss, capture the German possessions in New Guinea and Samoa, it was resolved that the Commonwealth should undertake that task in the former locality and that New Zealand should be responsible for that in the latter.

Meantime, as is related elsewhere, the Australian Fleet had been despatched to New Guinea waters.

CHAPTER III

THE CAPTURE OF NEW GUINEA AND SAMOA

The Commonwealth's contingent for the New Guinea expedition, consisting of some infantry and six companies of the Royal Australian Naval Reserve, was despatched from Sydney, on the 15th of August, in the transport *Berrima*, and, under the convoy of a portion of the Fleet, entered Simpsonhafen, in the then German island of New Britain, without opposition, on the 11th of September.

The troops were landed and, still without any attempt at resistance on the part of the enemy, they occupied Rabaul, the seat of government. But when seeking for a powerful wireless station, some miles inland, they were opposed by a force of native troops, under German officers, which was hidden by the trees and in the tops of which some of its riflemen were posted. From this vantage ground they fired on the advancing troops, with the result that, of the Australians, two officers and four men were killed, and one officer and three men were wounded. Nevertheless, the Australians' return fire quickly brought the German officers to reason, and the resistance ended with the surrender of the enemy force. The objective of the expedition was shortly afterwards reached and duly destroyed.

Meantime, the German Governor, after some hesitation, had consented without further parley to surrender all the Germanic possessions in New Guinea, New Britain and the adjacent islands, as well as all stores and property belonging to his Government.

Prior to the events in New Britain, the New Zealand Expedition which had left for its objective, about the same time as the Australians departed from Sydney, had been convoyed by three Imperial cruisers to New Caledonia. Thence they were escorted by a strong naval force, consisting of British, French, and Australian cruisers, to Samoan waters, where they arrived on the 31st of the month. The formidable appearance of the Fleet and the weakness of the enemy prevented any attempt at resistance. Thus, the Dominion troops were enabled, the same day, to land at Apia, the capital of the German Samoan islands,

without impediment and, a little later, they received the surrender of the enemy Governor, together with that of his civil and military staff and of all the Germanic possessions in the group.

CHAPTER IV

THE AUSTRALIAN FLEET'S PART IN THE GREAT WAR

Whilst the part of the Australian Fleet has not been so conspicuous as that of the Army, its services to the Commonwealth were of the most signal importance. In the first place, it was mainly through the presence and active co-operation of the Fleet that the land operations in New Britain were attended with so few casualties. It was, moreover, owing to its presence in the seas adjacent to Australia that a powerful German squadron was deterred from attacking the commerce of the South Pacific and that it was eventually forced to fly from the Indian and Pacific waters. This the German Admiral did not hesitate to admit, when he stated that he had no vessel that was a match for the *Australia;* though he would fight anything else that came along—a statement he was ere long to prove.

The first entry of the Navy into enemy waters was made on the 11th of August, 1914, or barely a week from the outbreak of hostilities. The scene was Simpsonhafen, in New Britain, and the Fleet there consisted of the *Australia*, *Sydney*, *Melbourne*, *Encounter*, together with the destroyers *Parramatta*, *Yarra*, and *Warrego*.

Parties were landed to find and destroy the wireless telegraphy station near Rabaul; but this duty, owing to the dense bush, they were unable to carry out. Nevertheless, a party of the *Warrego* men destroyed the enemy's telegraphic and telephonic communication.

Whilst at Simpsonhafen, the Admiral received orders to proceed to New Caledonia, there to meet and, assisted by the French cruiser *Montcalm* and by three Imperial ships from New Zealand, to escort an expedition from the Dominion to Samoa. This duty was carried out without trouble from the enemy and the British flag was hoisted at Apia, on the 31st of August.

Meanwhile, it had been determined that the work that had been left unfinished, when the task of convoying the New Zealand

troops took the flagship away, should be again attempted; but, this time, with the aid of a land force, and as related in the previous chapter, this duty was carried out efficiently and without any material loss.

LOSS OF AE1 AND THE "EMDEN'S" DESTRUCTION

Though the Navy, as such, had encountered no resistance, it did not escape without an unfortunate loss; for, whilst engaged in patrol duty, somewhere off the New Britain coast, the submarine AE1 was lost with all of her company of thirty-five officers and men. It is supposed that, owing to some accident, the vessel sank. As a small but interesting set-off to this loss, the smart steamboat used by the Governor of German New Guinea as an official visiting yacht was captured by the naval forces and was added to the strength of the Australian Fleet under the name of the *Una*. She was not only number one of Australia's captures, but was actually the first German vessel taken in the war.

After destroying a wireless station at Nauru and one at Auguar, the Fleet proceeded to take up the important duty of convoying the first contingent of Australian and New Zealand troops for the war in Europe. It was, indeed, in the performance of her part in this useful work that the *Sydney* encountered the notorious German raider *Emden*, which had up to that time been the terror of the Indian Ocean, where she had not only destroyed some eighteen British merchant steamers, but also three allied warships, and had, altogether, been the direct or indirect cause of the loss of property amounting in value to millions of money.

The engagement in which the career of this Teutonic *Alabama* was brought to a close took place off the Cocos Islands, a group of islets lying about 1400 miles north-west of the nearest point of the north-western coast of Australia. The enemy ship was sighted by the *Sydney* early on the morning of the 9th of November. The *Emden* opened fire at 9.30, and by 11 o'clock was piled on the coral rocks of North Keeling Island (one of the Cocos group) a smashed and blazing wreck with her decks covered with dead and wounded men. During the engagement, the enemy had fired some thousand shots, but had only struck the *Sydney* with about twenty and of the latter but few were effective, and thus, while the enemy vessel was being overwhelmed

with a rain of destroying shot, the injury to the Australian ship was comparatively slight and her casualties small. They numbered, in fact, but four killed and twelve wounded. The *Emden's* losses amounted to over two hundred men, of whom no less than one hundred and fifteen were killed. The remainder of her crew, except some thirty men, who were on shore and who escaped on a small vessel which they commandeered, were taken prisoners. Amongst these was their commander, Captain Müller.

If no other feat marks the doings of the Australian Navy, during the course of the War, the destruction of the *Emden* will be a deed in Australian history that will be read of with pride by the youth of future ages as the first triumph in our naval annals.

But, striking as was this event, the services of the Navy did not end with the accomplishments that have thus been narrated; for when there was no longer danger to be anticipated in the waters surrounding Australia, the Fleet was removed from the southern hemisphere to the waters of Europe, where, as a portion of the Imperial naval forces, it assisted in the important duty of blockading the coast of the enemy and in the active operations that took place near and in the Dardanelles. There, the Commonwealth had to deplore the loss of the second and last of the submarines. The AE2 was lost through striking a floating mine, whilst returning from a successful raid through the Sea of Marmora, and so perished the second and last of Australia's first under-water craft. The great service rendered by AE2 in the last days of her short career adds another wreath to those that entwine the brief annals of the Australian Navy.

In the transfer of the Fleet from the South Pacific, the *Australia* considerably preceded the other ships. She left, in fact, early in the month of November to go in pursuit of the fleeing German squadron of Admiral Spee. In carrying out this task, the battle cruiser covered a distance of 48,000 miles, during which she captured an enemy supply ship, and though she was not successful in overtaking her quarry, she formed one of the iron chain of great ships that were surrounding and which finally enclosed the enemy, near the Falkland Islands, where, with the exception of two cruisers that temporarily escaped, the hostile squadron was destroyed and sunk by the guns of the powerful Fleet, under Admiral Sturdee. For all these reasons, the services of Australia's Navy have been of a most eminent kind, and even some of those who formerly objected to the estab-

lishment of a fleet owned and manned by the Commonwealth, now agree that the policy that was responsible for the existence of the Navy is one that events and experience have justified.

From the time of the destruction of the second of the two Australian submarines little of moment may be noted in the annals of the ships of the Australian Fleet other than an unvarying round of well-performed but trying and monotonous patrol work, chiefly carried on in various sections of the North Atlantic. The battle cruiser *New Zealand*, that had been presented by the Dominion Government to Great Britain, was more fortunate than any of the units of the Commonwealth Navy, in that she took part with distinction, and fortunately with but little loss, in the great naval engagement of the 31st of May, 1916, which is known to history from the locality near where it took place as the Battle of Jutland. In this famous encounter the *New Zealand*, which was then the flagship of Admiral Pakenham, rendered such effective service that it is considered that she materially assisted to bring about the successful issue of the day's operations.

Whilst the Battle of Jutland was raging, the cruiser *Australia* was in port in Scotland, undergoing an overhaul, and was thus deprived, to the vexation of her gallant crew, of a part in determining the result of the engagement. Doubtless they heartily echoed the wish of Australia's Minister for Defence that in another and finally decisive encounter with the German Fleet they would share with the crew of the *New Zealand* the honour of taking an effective and prominent part.

CHAPTER V

THE FIRST CONTINGENT—THE DEPARTURE AND ARRIVAL OF THE TROOPS IN EGYPT

Whilst the Germanic possessions in the Pacific were being dealt with in the manner previously described, no delay was made with the greater task of preparing the contingents the Commonwealth and New Zealand had promised for operations, somewhere in the northern world. As early as the 6th of August, it had been suggested, in the House of Lords, by Lord Denman, a former Governor of Australia, that the offered troops might be utilized in India or Egypt. In no long time, it began to be

rumoured that to the second of these countries they would be sent—at least for some time; but confirmation of this report did not come for some months. But this uncertainty had no effect on the enrolments, which proceeded without pause. Finally, all was completed, early in October, and the embarkment of the Australian troops commenced in the various capitals of the eastern States on the 17th of the month, and was concluded, at all the appointed ports to Fremantle in the west, by the 22nd, when twenty-eight great troopships set sail for Albany, which was the meeting-place that had been appointed for the junction with them of the ten large transports that were to bear the New Zealand army, and with a competent naval force that was to form the ocean transport of the united fleet of transport ships.

At length, the assemblage and marshalling was fully complete and, on the 1st of November, the great Armada—the greatest the world had ever seen on an ocean adventure—set out for its unknown goal in the stranger north.

It was not till the 3rd of December that the anxious friends that the troops had left behind were relieved by the intelligence that the expedition had safely reached its destination, which proved to be Egypt. There the troops were landed and went into training camps—the Australians chiefly at Mena and Maadi, the New Zealanders at Zeitan. There they remained, forming, with the Imperial troops, a competent guard against the constant menace of a Turkish invasion, till some time in the middle of the month of April. In the meantime, there had been a steady flow of reinforcements arriving in Egypt, till, by the time mentioned, there was a formidable army from the Commonwealth and Dominion waiting for such orders as the authorities in England might see fit to give. Eventually, instructions came that the forces were to embark for more active service, in some other quarter.

This was effected, and the whole of the battalions, brigades, and divisions were, with high hopes in the hearts of their men, transported from the land of the Pharaohs, towards a destination which it was suspected would prove to be some point on the Dardanelles. This surmise proved correct, and the particular point, a beach extending for some distance northward of a cape, known as Gaba Tepe; for there it was resolved by the Commanding-General that a landing should be attempted.

CHAPTER VI

THE LANDING AT ANZAC

It was long before dawn on the 25th of April under the cover of the waiting guns of the allied fleet, that the fateful operation began. At first, the enemy seemed scarcely to realize what was taking place, and thus, the first boat-loads of troops reached the beach with but little loss, and there, without a pause for their comrades who were yet to land, the men flung off their swags and, bayonet in hand, rushed on the first line of enemy trenches. The Turks made little resistance. They seemed to be taken by surprise and rushed from their cover in wild disorder, with the Australian bayonets at work in the midst of their hindmost rabble. Into the second trench poured the torrent of pursued and pursuers, and again, but after greater resistance, the Turks were expelled from their shelters.

Finally, after the capture of his third and fourth lines of cover, the enemy was driven from all the ridges immediately overlooking the beach. Some of the Australians, indeed, in their fierce pursuit got nearly two miles inland; but, for some time, the forces of the enemy that had not been affected in the assault on the beach were pouring to the rescue of their flying countrymen, and numbers of them got on the flanks of the Australians and poured on them a destructive fire. A fierce rain of shrapnel was also sweeping the ranks of the till then victorious stormers, and thus, being without support, the weary and exhausted men of Australia and New Zealand had either to retire or run the useless risk of being cut off, as some of them were, and this was reluctantly done, as far as the nearer ridges that front the beach.

Meanwhile, the landing of the remainder of the troops had been proceeding; but under far other circumstances than had attended the passage to the shore of the first lines of boats. The batteries of the enemy on the elevations at some distance back from the beach had awoke with a vengeance and poured on the crowd of loaded boats a hail of metal with deadly effect. Two boats were sunk and scarcely one of the barges escaped without some casualties, and not a few of them were full of dead,

dying, and wounded men. The total loss was great and deplorable, and to this day it has never been plainly told how many gave their lives and limbs to effect the landing on what was in months to come to be widely known as the ill-starred beach of Anzac.

CHAPTER VII

THE TRENCHES AND THE LIFE THEREIN

When the unwounded troops had all been landed and the conquered soil had been allotted between the various brigades, the work of making it safe from the assault of any force the enemy was likely to bring together, was immediately undertaken, and in an incredibly short space of time a series of trenches and dug-outs extended, generally in a line with the shore, to distances up to one thousand yards from it. At some places these approached as close as twenty yards from those of the enemy; at other points there was a much greater interval. Nevertheless, in quite a number of places, the opposing lines were within easy reach of the bomb throwers of either side and, in such sections, there was no moment, day or night, that the men in the trenches were free from the deadly work of frequent bombs.

Unlike the men engaged in such war, on other fronts, there was no relief from the work of holding the trenches that could be said to free the Anzac forces, for the time, from the danger of sudden death; for all through the weary months of the occupation of this position, the Turkish batteries on the higher hills commanded every place where it was possible to walk, and a wash in the sea was constantly attended by the risk of death or wounds. The climate, in the long summer days of this confined and closed area, was burning and its scorching heat was constantly accompanied by myriads of flies.

These afflictions, together with the effluvia from numbers of dead animals and but half-buried bodies of men, unitedly made the abode round the Anzac Beach a scene of daily torture in the hotter months; while a bitter cold in the winter, that was unrelieved by fires, made life in November and December scarcely less easy to be borne than it was in the midst of the pains of

summer. Writing of this cold, the correspondent of the London "Times" states :—

"Never probably, since Crimean days, have British forces had to endure such cold as the last days of November brought to our men at the Dardanelles; yet the troops kept uncomplainingly to their duty and the men who died, died with firm lips. One must remember that this was the first experience that most of the Australians had had of a real winter. They bore it well."

Aye, they bore their fate with Roman fortitude; or like men to whom heroic endurance was an ordinary matter of daily life.

With such a climate and such surroundings, it may well be believed that summer and winter alike brought their heavy lists of men stricken with sickness from which many of them passed into the great beyond, where thousands more, more quickly, went through the bloody gate of mortal wounds.

The number of those who died from the effects of hardships, disease, and exposure may never be told; but we were allowed to know that the official lists to the month of November showed a total of twenty-seven thousand of killed, wounded and missing, and that many of those recorded as missing were men who were really slain in the Turkish lines.

Thus, there is every reason to believe that when the 20th of December had fully come, nearly thirty thousand of the sons of Australia and New Zealand had shed the whole or part of their blood by the beach of Anzac.

CHAPTER VIII

THE BATTLE OF LONE PINE

It was well that the Australian forces had so quickly got themselves in a position for effective defence, for on the day following the landing, the Turks in great force made a determined attack on the newly made trenches; but, after repeated assaults at various points of the Australasian line, the enemy, who had suffered great loss, both in advancing and retiring, was driven back to his entrenchments.

Each day, thereafter, for weeks, was accompanied by desultory fighting, which entailed losses without apparent benefit to either side; but the confidence of the Australasians that they would make good their objective, which was to drive the enemy from the heights commanding the Narrows, was never in doubt, and this while there were no illusions as to the extent of the task.

Writing to the author on this subject, early in the month of July, a young Australian officer of the 4th[1] Battalion, who, with over two hundred men of his unit, was to fall in the advance he refers to, stated :—

"It is foolish to be misled by the reports current in our newspapers, such as that our troops have crossed the peninsula and occupied Maidos. Had we done so, our main object would have been achieved, i.e. driven a wedge between Constantinople and the forces operating in the south. As a matter of fact, we have advanced about a mile. Nevertheless, we have every confidence in our ability to get through when we get the order to advance."

The advance that this gallant young officer refers to was that which began on the 6th of August—a date which will be known in history as that of the beginning of the terrible Battle of the Lone Pine, which lasted with little intermission till the night of the 10th. It was announced and preceded by a furious bombardment of the enemy's entrenchments from sea and land; but, as the result was to show, the Turks were little shaken, and as each battalion of the assailing troops rushed from the trenches, it was met by a storm of destroying shot, which swept the ranks with blasts of death. Nevertheless, the enemy was, after some resistance, driven from his nearer trenches; whilst some of the assailing troops torn, bleeding, and woefully thinned by the destroying hail of steel and lead they had passed through, reached the summit and saw the promised land beneath them; but alas! their deathless exploit and sacrifices were all unavailing, for being without support, which they should not have been, their scanty forces were unable to maintain their position and thus they had to retire suffering further losses as they did. Their losses were, indeed, terrible, surpassing in the case of some of the units anything that had been heard of in the Spanish Peninsula, or Crimean war. It had been held till then by military men

[1] By the 9th of August there were 584 casualties in the 4th Battalion.

that no troops would face the loss of more than one-fourth of their strength. The men of Anzac did and did so unflinchingly.

Resuming our narrative, let it be stated that further attempts were made to regain some of the lost terrain ; but that though each assault during the remainder of the four terrible days was marked by valour that the world may vainly seek to surpass, little progress was made and that, in the end, the enemy's lines remained practically intact. They so continued, despite later repeated efforts till the end came, on the night of the 19th of December.

To the foregoing account, it may be advisable to add a few extracts from Sir Ian Hamilton's report to the War Office. The first paragraphs contain leading features of the first day's attack ; the others illustrate the General's opinion of the troops and their work in that and in other phases of the struggle.

Reports Sir Ian :—

" The action commenced at 4.30 p.m. with a continuous and heavy bombardment of the Lone Pine and adjacent trenches, H.M.S. *Bacchante* assisting by searching the valleys to the north-east and east, and the Monitors by shelling the enemy's batteries south of Gaba Tepe. The assault had been entrusted to the 1st Australian Brigade (Brigadier-General N. M. Smyth), and punctually at 5.30 p.m. it was carried out by the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th Australian Battalions, the 1st Battalion forming the Brigade reserve.

" Two lines left their trenches simultaneously, and were closely followed up by a third. The rush across the open was a regular race against death, which came in the shape of a hail of shell and rifle bullets from the front and from either flank. But the Australians had firmly resolved to reach the enemy's trenches, and in this determination they became for the moment invincible. The barbed wire entanglements were reached and were surmounted. Then came a terrible moment, when it seemed as though it would be physically impossible to penetrate into the trenches. The overhead cover of stout pine beams resisted all individual efforts to move it, and the loopholes continued to spit fire. Groups of our men then bodily lifted up the beams and individual soldiers leaped down into the semi-darkened galleries amongst the Turks. By 5.47 p.m. the 3rd and 4th Battalions were well into the enemy's vitals, and a few minutes later the reserves of the 2nd Battalion

advanced over their *parados*, and driving out, killing, or capturing the occupants, made good the whole of the trenches. The reserve companies of the 3rd and 4th Battalions followed, and at 6.20 p.m. the 1st Battalion (in reserve) was launched to consolidate the position."

. . . . . .

Respecting counter attacks :—

"Another effort was made by the enemy, lasting uninterruptedly, at closest quarters, till five p.m., then being resumed at midnight and proceeding intermittently till dawn. At an early period of this last counter-attack the 4th Battalion were forced by bombs to relinquish portion of a trench, but later on, led by their commanding officer, Lieutenant-Colonel McNaghten, they killed every Turk who had got in.

"Thus was Lone Pine taken and held. The Turks were in great force and very full of fight, yet one weak Australian brigade, numbering at the outset but 2000 rifles, and supported only by two weak battalions, carried the work under the eyes of a whole enemy division, and maintained their grip upon it like a vice during six days' successive counter-attacks. High praise is due to Brigadier-General N. M. Smyth and to his battalion commanders. The irresistible dash and daring of officers and men in the initial charge were a glory to Australia. The stout-heartedness with which they clung to the captured ground in spite of fatigue, severe losses, and the continual strain of shell fire and bomb attacks may seem less striking to the civilian ; it is even more admirable to the soldier. From start to finish the artillery support was untiring and vigilant.

. . . . . .

"On the approach of heavy columns of the enemy, the Australians, virtually surrounded, and having already suffered losses of over 1000, were withdrawn to their original position. Here they stood at bay, and though the men were now half dead with thirst and with fatigue, they bloodily repulsed attack after attack, delivered by heavy columns of Turks.

. . . . . .

"The 2nd Australian Brigade did all that men could do ; the 8th Light Horse only accepted their repulse after losing three-fourths of that devoted band, who so bravely sallied forth from Russell's Top. Some of the works were carried ; but in

these cases the enemy's concealed machine-guns made it impossible to hold on. But all that day, as the result of these most gallant attacks, Turkish reserves on Battleship Hill were being held back to meet any dangerous development along the front of the old Anzac line, and so were not available to meet our main enterprise."

Whilst it was the good fortune of several units to be specially mentioned by the Commanding-General, there was not a battalion, brigade, or division engaged in this memorable attack and the series of further attacks that were made and received, during four successive days, that did not cover themselves with glory and, alas! also, their country with proud tears for those they left on the field.

What is true of the Australians in this recital is equally true of the gallant men of the New Zealand army. Referring to them, Sir Ian Hamilton states :—

NEW ZEALANDERS AT TABLE TOP

"Simultaneously the attack on Table Top had been launched under cover of a heavy bombardment from H.M.S. *Colne*. No General on peace manœuvres would ask troops to attempt so break-neck an enterprise. The flanks of Table Top are so steep that the height gives an impression of a mushroom shape—of the summit bulging out over its stem. But just as faith moves mountains, so valour can carry them. The Turks fought bravely. The angle of Table Top's ascent is recognized in our regulations as 'impracticable for infantry.' But neither Turks nor angles of ascent were destined to stop Russell or his New Zealanders that night. There are moments during battle when life becomes intensified, when men become supermen, when the impossible becomes simple—and this was one of those moments. The scarped heights were scaled, the plateau was carried by midnight. With this brilliant feat the task of the right covering force was at an end. Its attacks had been made with the bayonet and bomb only; magazines were emptied by order; hardly a rifle shot had been fired. Some 150 prisoners were captured as well as many rifles and much equipment, ammunition, and stores. No words can do justice to the achievement of Brigadier-General Russell and his men. There are exploits which must be seen to be realized.

"During the night of the 9th–10th the New Zealand and New Army troops on Chunuk Bair were relieved. For three days and three nights they had been ceaselessly fighting. They were half dead with fatigue. Their lines of communication started from sea-level, ran across trackless ridges and ravines to an altitude of 800 feet, and were exposed all the way to snipers' fire and artillery bombardment. It had become imperative, therefore, to get them enough food, water, and rest; and for this purpose it was imperative also to withdraw them.

. . . . . .

"All the work was done by Australian and New Zealand soldiers almost entirely by night, and the uncomplaining efforts of these much-tried troops in preparation are in a sense as much to their credit as their heroism in the battles that followed."

CHAPTER IX

THE DEPARTURE FROM ANZAC

It had been decided after long consideration, that the available forces were wholly insufficient, even with further appalling losses, to drive the Turks from their lines, which, despite the most strenuous bombardments, had been vastly strengthened, and that thus, of two alternatives, the wiser policy was to withdraw the troops from the scene; yet this resolution was characterized by doubt and hesitation, as is evident from the fact that barely a fortnight before the evacuation began some 4000 Australians, who were stationed in the Island of Lemnos, were removed from there to the Anzac lines.

However, when it was finally decided that the withdrawal should take place, the movement was carried through with complete success. It had reasonably been expected that the serious task of removing a great army from lines that were almost immediately in contact with those of the enemy would scarcely be effected without alarming the foe, and that then an assault would be made on the retiring force which would probably entail deplorable losses on the brigades in the rear. Happily, the

Turks saw nothing of what was in progress and even assisted, by a bombardment, in the destruction of some of the stores which the Australians had perforce to abandon before they were completely destroyed. Thus, unmolested, the men were withdrawn from their various positions, during the night of the 19th, and by dawn on the morning of the 20th the whole force was embarked, practically without the loss of a man.

When, at length the Turks became aware of their departure, they found but empty trenches, six almost useless guns, and but little material that was in serviceable order.

Such was the fortunate end of an undertaking, too late conceived, too slowly begun; which had been marked by errors of judgment and by an absence of decision and commanding generalship; but which, had it been carried out in a happier way, might have attained its objective, and with that result would have materially aided to bring the war to an early and completely successful issue.

In one way, only, was it glorious, and that was in the splendid valour and endurance of the officers and men. Their story will not die; nor will that of the host of gallant men they left behind,

> "Buried beside the Anzac Sea,
> Where thousands of our heroes sleep,
> Afar from home and the friends that weep,
> But yet may ne'er their sorrowings tell,
> In sighs o'er the slain they loved so well."

CHAPTER X

TRIBUTES TO THE AUSTRALIANS AND NEW ZEALANDERS

Of many glowing accounts of what the Australians and New Zealanders did at Anzac, the following statements seem to the writer specially worthy of attention:—

Lieutenant-General Birdwood:—

"The more I see of the Australian troops, the more does my heart go out to them.

"The men of the recently arrived 2nd Division are just magnificent. Nowhere in the whole world could one hope to find

their equals—always ready to fight and never complaining, taking all hardships as they come with perfect good humour, every man ready to do the work of two. I am, indeed, proud to be associated with them."

Said Brigadier-General McCay :—

"I have taken men down into the jaws of death, and they came with a cheer and laugh, and the one word, 'Australia,' on their lips. When I had to say to the men 'Go and be killed,' or, 'Come and be killed'—for that was what it amounted to—I never failed to see the joy of combat on their faces, nor the stoutness of heart amongst them."

Referring to the spirit displayed by the New Zealanders just before and during the withdrawal, Mr. Malcolm Ross, the official newspaper representative with the Dominion's troops, writes :

"There was a deeper feeling of sadness that we should be leaving, without a further struggle, the ground so dearly won—the ilex-covered valleys and hills gained and held with the life-blood of so many of the noblest and best of New Zealand's and Australia's sons. Somewhat poetically one of the New Zealand soldiers put this phase of thought to his battalion commander. 'I hope, sir,' he said, 'that those fellows who lie buried along the "Dere" will be soundly sleeping and not hear us as we march away.' The idea that his dead comrades might think the living were forsaking them seemed to have made a deep impression on his mind.

. . . . . .

"As the last days drew near the suspense grew greater. Did the Turks know that we were evacuating the position ? Would they attack at the last moment our attenuated lines ? The New Zealand general—now in command of the army corps—finally took all ranks into his confidence and issued an order expressing his trust in their discretion and their high soldierly qualities to carry out a task, the success of which would largely depend on their individual efforts.

"The splendid spirit of the men at the finish showed that this confidence was not misplaced. On the Friday I went into the firing line on the Apex—the highest ground won in all the fight-

ing—and found the New Zealanders, who still occupied the post of honour, tumbling over one another to be the last to leave. The colonel commanding the Wellington Battalion called for thirty volunteers from two companies. Every man in each company volunteered, so that after all he had to make the selection himself. Men were coming to their commanders and begging that they might be allowed to be in the last lot to go. 'Do let me stay,' said one man, 'I was in the landing, and I should like to be one of the last to leave.'

"It was just the same with the Australians; they all wanted to be in the 'Die-hards.' 'Have you many volunteers for the "Die-hards"?' I asked one commander. 'Every mother's son of them wants to be a "Die-hard,"' he replied. And this, mind you, was at a time when we thought that most of the 'Die-hards' would, for certainty, be either killed, wounded, or taken prisoner.

. . . . . .

"With such organization on the part of the staff, and such brave and loyal co-operation and coolness on the part of the officers and men in the trenches, it is, perhaps, after all, not to be wondered at that the Turks were busy shelling the vacant trenches and the deserted beaches a day after men, mules, and guns had been silently and secretly embarked and were already well across the Gulf of Saros."

Said the correspondent of the London "Times":—

"But the rest do not grudge the palm to the Australians and New Zealanders. They were furious and cool in the drive of fight, tremendous and triumphing in the hand-to-hand grapple, endlessly resourceful and helpful in trench and camp, irresistible in high spirits and humour, in comradeship hearty or gentle at need, loving their friend in life and death, nor ashamed of the emotions repressed by a duller habit. They fought and killed or stood and died as the call or the chance came, they laughed and sang as the mood came, or cursed with a wealth and riot of profanity to dumbfound the ribald of other nations, but when it was the padre's hour they were persuaded in religion and moved to prayer and praise, they remembered what their mothers had taught them, all the dearest and best they had known far away, and in Heaven's sight there was a sounder heart in many a sinner than ever has beat in many a cold bosom of the good."

Verily, Australia and New Zealand will not forget the men of whom these records are made nor the glorious dead whose remains have made of "Anzac" a name for ever holy in our annals and which now sanctify an alien soil, honoured by their dust and watered by their blood.

A tribute of a saddening character comes from a great British weekly newspaper, for when referring to the evacuation of Anzac, it states :—

"With the withdrawal from Krithia, the ill-starred Gallipoli expedition comes to an end. In reading of the skilfulness of the retirement, we must not forget what a tragedy it has been. Never have men of British blood fought with more valour; never has valour been rendered more fruitless through incompetency and blundering in high places."

"If this be so,
Not theirs the fault of failure 's due ;
But glory to those who fought and fell
And aidless did what men could do.
They bared their breasts to shot and shell
And poured their blood like tropic rain ;
They smiled at death in hero parts,
Surely, they did not fall in vain !
Ah ! no, for all Australia's hearts
Proclaim a nation's mournful pride
In deeds her sons performéd by
Sad Anzac's blood-dyed hills and tide,
Beneath a hostile, alien sky.
Then plant with many a cypress tree,
To droop its dew where valour rests,
Bright laurels by that Anzac Sea,
That heroes there who stood the tests
Of crowding death and mortal pain,
May know, if aught the dead may know,
Their sacrifice was *not* in vain,
For from their blood great deeds shall grow."

CHAPTER XI

MR. HUGHES IN ENGLAND AND THE PARIS CONFERENCE OF JUNE, 1916

Almost from the day he arrived in England, the Australian Prime Minister began a crusade that obtained the widest publicity and attracted the greatest attention throughout the Empire, but particularly so in the United Kingdom. He urged

on every occasion when he came before the public—and such occasions were striking and frequent—that the most drastic steps should be taken to root out the last remnants of the vast trading and manufacturing interests that, before the war, Germany had established beneath the shadow of the Union Jack. He demanded that never should these be allowed to rise again or others be suffered to grow up in their place. In fact he claimed that, not only during the prevailing war, but after the conclusion of peace, the Teutonic Empires and their confederates should be treated for years to come by the British race as pariahs and outlaws of the nations, and that the end of the conflict of armies should be followed by a relentless war of trade and commerce, in which the Germans should continue to be considered the foe, as they had been whilst they were ranked beneath the standard of Mars. The proclamation of this doctrine received great support, and honours were thickly showered on its exponent. Nevertheless, there were some in England who were not disposed to receive it without question, and apart from reasons of an ethical character they considered it neither expedient nor practical. However, Mr. Hughes was so powerfully supported that, though not wholly in accord with all his views on the subject, the Imperial Government was fain to appoint him as one of the British delegates to a Conference that was to be held in Paris, whereat representatives of the nations at war with the Central Empires were to deliberate on proposals bearing on the commercial relations between the Allies, between them and the neutral nations, and as to the Allied attitude after the war to trade with enemy Powers.

This Conference was duly opened on the 14th of June, and thereat the Australian Prime Minister energetically put forward his views, which were generally approved by the assemblage, and a series of resolutions in sympathy with them were adopted.

In the first instance it was decided that the various laws and regulations of the Allies prohibiting trading with the enemy during the war period should be brought into accord. For this purpose the Allies were to prohibit their own subjects or citizens and all persons residing in their territories from carrying on any trade with inhabitants of enemy countries, or with firms or companies, wherever located, that might be listed from time to time as amenable to enemy influence. They were to prohibit the importation of all goods that might be of enemy origin, and

enemy undertakings within the Allied countries were to be sequestrated or placed under strict control; whilst common action was to be taken in respect to strengthening and extending the measures already in operation for preventing supplies from Allied territory from reaching the enemy through neutral channels.

With reference to the period following the war, it was resolved that the benefit of the most favoured nation treatment should not be granted to any of the existing hostile countries during a number of years—the number to be fixed by mutual agreement. For a similar duration of time it was decided that special treatment was to be meted out to the commerce and ships of the existing enemy Powers. Finally, further provisions of a like tendency were to operate for an indefinitely prolonged period of the future.

Such was the net result of the Paris Conference of the 14th June, 1916, and that the Prime Minister of Australia was in no small degree responsible for the policy adopted may be safely asserted; but that he satisfactorily settled all the matters that he was specially expected to deal with on behalf of Australia is open to doubt. By far and away the most urgent matter of several subjects that he undertook to handle was that of providing ships to carry the exceptionally great quantity of wheat that had for months been waiting means of transport to Europe. Much of this was the result of special labour and energy supplied by the Australian farmers at the suggestion of the Imperial authorities, who, nevertheless, subsequently omitted to avail themselves of the abundant fruits of their call. Mr. Hughes, it was understood, was to energetically urge them to provide ships to transport the waiting wheat to the United Kingdom or Allied countries; but whether he did so, or tried and failed of result, the records of his triumphal progress through Great Britain failed to show, and whilst the wheat of Australia in a hundred stacks was lying more or less exposed to the ravages of the weather and pests, the people of Britain were being fed on the wheat of foreign Powers.

However, if there was no visible evidence for several months that the matter had been considered, the people of Australia learned, just on the eve of their Prime Minister's departure from Great Britain, that he had made a serious attempt to deal with it successfully. Finding that arrangements could not be made in any other way, he purchased for the Commonwealth a fleet

of fifteen large cargo steamers, and by this action he was persuaded that reasonable provision had been made for the carriage from Australia to Europe of the wheat that had so long been delayed, and for the transport thereof of others of the primary productions of the Commonwealth which the shortage of ocean freighters had been seriously affecting.

Mr. Hughes made his last public utterance in England on the 24th June. It was principally devoted to the advocacy of what amounted to a scheme of Imperial Federation and, in so much, of a policy that the electors of Australia had in no way considered or committed themselves to, and which if it were submitted to them they might fail to endorse.

CHAPTER XII

ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN AUSTRALIA DURING THE WAR

The fact that coincident with the first year of the war Australia was suffering from a severe drought, which entailed most disastrous losses on the stockowners was the immediate cause of an immense increase in the meat bill of the Australian people. Through these losses there were, during the year 1916, in the four states of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, and South Australia, upwards of seventeen millions of sheep, one million nine hundred and ninety thousand cattle, and nearly three hundred and twenty-nine thousand horses less than there had been three years before. South Australia in particular was relatively by far the heaviest loser, for her sheep were less in number than they had been at any time for fifty years.

Whilst mainly through the result of the drought the price of meat had vastly increased, the war was not without an important influence, seeing that the Imperial authorities had the first option of the meat of the Australian market, and that, too, at prices but little in advance of those quoted in the period immediately preceding the war. Ordering immense quantities for their naval and military services, the drought-restricted Australian supplies were heavily depleted ; whilst the demand of the civilian population of the British Isles being greatly diminished by the hosts of men who had enlisted, and who were, on that account,

being fed by the Government, the local supplies of the British Isles, supplemented by those obtained from America, were fairly adequate to the civilian demand; and thus the price of meat remained not greatly above the normal standard in England, when something like famine rates prevailed in most of Australia. One most deplorable result of the high prices that were obtained for meat in Australia was that graziers and dairy farmers were induced to sell large numbers of female stock for slaughter, and thus thousands of animals which might have abundantly perpetuated their species were consumed to gratify the desire for immediate gain.

Though drought had disastrously affected the pastures of Australia, it had not, as we have seen, prevented the year 1915 from being signalized by a record crop of wheat; but unfortunately the shipping to transport to Europe the vast surplus supply above Australia's requirements was wholly inadequate, and thus for many months the vast bulk of the harvested grain lay unprofitably idle and but partly protected in the sheds or in roofless stacks along the railways of a large section of wheat-growing Australia.

Whilst this was the case with the cereal harvest, the export of wool to the United States was prohibited, and thus the absence of American competition greatly lessened the prices that would have obtained, though, fortunately for the pastoralists, the immense demand for woollen clothing for the millions of Allied soldiery resulted in prices beyond precedent; yet these were nevertheless not as high as they might have been had the American buyers been allowed to operate.

Another injurious effect on primary production resulted from the long prohibition of the export of coal to the Pacific coast of America. This arose from the fear that was for a short time valid that some of the fuel, which might have gone there, would be obtained by enemy ships; but when all hostile craft in the Pacific Ocean had been sunk or interned there was no longer an apparent reason to justify the continuance of the embargo on the export of the product of the Australian coal-fields, particularly so when it was a known fact that coal was being shipped from the United Kingdom to neutral ports in close proximity to enemy forces.

Apart from these considerations the doctrine that nothing mattered except the accepted need for casting every resource

of men and material into the war had a serious effect on the industrial production of Australia, and whilst Canada was reaping a golden harvest from her output of munitions for the Allied forces, the production of warlike material in Australia was excessively small and wholly insufficient to meet the requirements of her own troops. Nay, more, the Imperial War Office actually discouraged the attempts that the Commonwealth made to produce munitions and to establish foundries of warlike material which might, besides affording profitable employment to thousands of skilled workers, have placed Australia in a position to rely on her own resources in a time to come when this might be a matter of vital importance. As it was, in the year 1916, if an enemy had appeared on the Australian coast it is highly probable that the menacing force would have found the Commonwealth denuded of the small accumulations that it had made of warlike stores and in no position to provide the material and guns for a campaign of weeks, or even of days.

So marked was the opposition of the British Government to the manufacturing in Australia of war munitions that the Federal Government which, from the outset of its career, had shown no disposition to act independently of the Imperial authorities in matters that seriously concerned the national interests of the Commonwealth, abandoned the idea of establishing factories and foundries that might serve to enable Australia to supply its own troops, and instead decided, within a fortnight of the Prime Minister's return, that it would send one hundred and fifty artisans to Great Britain to assist in the manufacture there of the material whose production in Australia had been tabooed.

From these various causes it happened about this time that though it was estimated that over a quarter of a million of men had been removed by voluntary enlistment from the various industries of the Commonwealth, another great army of men who should readily have found plentiful employment in factories and in the numerous positions vacated by the soldiers, were entirely dependent on Government expenditure for the means to exist, and this was the case throughout Australia when every man or woman in England who was able and willing to labour had readily available abundant work and good wages, a state of affairs, it might well be asserted, that had not prevailed in the British Isles since the far-off days of "Merrie England."

CHAPTER XIII

INTERFERENCE WITH INTER-STATE FREE TRADE

For some time previous to the middle of the year 1916, what seemed to be a practical violation of the policy of the Federal Constitution, that trade and commerce between the States of the Commonwealth should be absolutely free, was effected, apparently in concurrence with rulings of the High Court, by the State Governments of Queensland and New South Wales. The former authority laid an embargo on the transfer of stock from the Northern State to all other portions of the Commonwealth, and as Queensland was by far the largest source of Australia's cattle supply, the effect of the embargo, conjointly with the prevailing drought and other causes, was to bring about a great shortage of horned animals for slaughter in five of the six States of the Union. Similar action was taken by the Government of New South Wales in respect to the wheat crop, which was seized by the State under a system of compulsory purchase and by virtue of the privilege that the High Court had accorded to State owned properties, the transmission of wheat to States where the harvest had been insufficient for the local supply was prohibited. Thus it began to be apparent that, by the exercise of the power given by High Court judgments to State owned properties, the right guaranteed by the Constitution of free trade throughout Australia was being grievously mutilated and might, by the extension of the system of State ownership, in time become null and void. When this was considered it seemed that a potent argument had been given to those who had for a long time previously been of opinion that the Federal principle was unnecessary in the Government of Australia, and that the time was at hand when one Administration and one Parliament should take the place of the seven executives and legislatures that ruled in the Commonwealth. It was contended by the advocates of Unification that these several authorities were liable to be at variance, and recent events had shown that there was a tendency in certain States to seek what seemed to them to be their own good, even if it were at the expense of the interests of each and all the others. This, it was claimed, was not what

the Australian people had sought when they decided to unite under a Federal Constitution which it was hoped and believed would in time eliminate sectional selfishness and cause the good of the nation at large to be at all times the first and paramount consideration.

In putting this before the people, the Unificationists did not fail to urge the need for a great curtailment in the expenses of Government which the vast expenditure on the war had made a matter of supreme importance; nor did they hesitate to show how this reduction of cost might be readily effected by the establishment of their policy of one Government and one Parliament.

Whilst this contention was put forward by those opposed to the continuance of the Federal system in Australia, the advocates of that policy were not silent, and as a result of the intervention on their side of leading members of the State Parliaments, the High Commissioner thought it expedient to deny the statement attributed to him, wherein he was alleged to have asserted that there were too many Parliaments in Australia for her small population of five millions. He admitted, however, that he had stated that "the greatest tribute to Australia is that it prospers under the care of no less than seven sovereign Parliaments." The admission was, nevertheless, only a polite way of saying that the prosperity was not owing to, but rather in spite of, the seven Legislatures.

CHAPTER XIV

THE COMMONWEALTH BANK

A MOST important event in the commercial annals of Australia was the official opening on the 22nd of August of the fine building at the corner of Pitt and Moore Streets, Sydney, which is to be the head-quarters of the Commonwealth Bank of Australia. This ceremony was performed by the Governor-General (Sir Ronald Munro Ferguson) in the presence of a large assemblage of the citizens of Sydney. With Sir Ronald were many of the leading politicians of the Commonwealth and State and representatives of the Judiciary, Religion, Commerce and Defence.

Addresses were delivered by the Governor, the Prime Minister, the Commonwealth Treasurer (Mr. Higgs), and the Governor of the Bank (Mr. Denison Miller), in which the importance of the event in the history of the Bank and of that of the institution to the finances of Australia was emphasized in various ways. In the course of his remarks, Mr. Miller stated that the Bank had already thirty-six branches, whilst the aggregate balance-sheet for the period ending the 30th June, 1916, would show a total of £40,000,000.

There can be no question but that the progress and business of the Bank was largely promoted by the vast and unprecedented transactions which it was called upon to undertake through the war, and which could assuredly not have been as well or as conveniently financed had it not been in existence. Indeed, it is highly possible that without the Bank the policy of the Commonwealth Government of obtaining in Australia a great portion of the funds required for the war expenses would not have been nearly as successful as it undoubtedly had been, at least, up to the time of the opening of the Sydney structure.

CHAPTER XV

THE ANZACS IN FRANCE

As long as there appeared to be any real danger of a Turkish invasion of Egypt the armies of the Commonwealth and New Zealand were retained there ; but when it seemed apparent that the Ottoman Empire was so fully occupied with its operations in north-eastern Asia Minor and Mesopotamia as to be unable to make any formidable attack in the Egyptian sphere it was determined that the great mass of the Anzac infantry and artillery should be removed to France. There the gallant French were with difficulty maintaining themselves against formidable and, at times, partly successful attacks in the vicinity of Verdun, whilst the armies of Britain and Canada, much further to the west, though firmly holding their trenches, had for many months been wholly unable to make any progress against the enemy. It was believed that with the arrival of the Anzac host and of further heavy reinforcements from England a successful

advance on the German lines might be promptly made, and this anticipation was soon to be realized.

The first Anzac divisions began to arrive in France in the month of March. These troops were enthusiastically received by the French people, who found in "the tide of keen, ardent men—these clean-shaven, hatchet-faced lads" from the sun-kissed lands of the Southern hemisphere "a new type of manhood," and one that appeared to them to be more akin to them in manner and temperament than were the stolid islanders of foggy Albion, or even than the partly kindred troops of frosty Canada.

Referring to the new-comers, the most widely circulated journal of France stated :

"There is no indiscretion in bidding Welcome ! to these wonderful Colonials who at Gallipoli were the admiration of the Allies. The Anzacs, as they have been baptized since their campaign in the Dardanelles, have arrived, in part, on the British Front. If the inhabitants of the villages they passed through were astonished and delighted to be present at their coming, it appears that they themselves were no less so to come and fight beside us."

Thus it was that their new Allies became special friends to the French, whilst the Anzac veterans, on their part, lost no opportunity to ingratiate themselves with the people of the country, who apart from admiring the fine physique of the Australasian soldiers were not a little impressed by the fact that the Anzacs were more highly paid than any of the soldiers of the northern world. This fact, it may be readily imagined, did not diminish the interest of the fair sex in those who had come from the far-off Southern Seas to help to defend them and their country from the hated Germans.

For some days after their arrival in the portion of Northern France where they were to begin to operate, the Anzacs were not called upon for duty against the enemy, and it was not till the 6th April that the first evidence of their presence in a section of the front trenches of the British lines was made apparent to the Germans, who, in truth, showed no fear that their new antagonists would materially affect their position ; for ere long they put out an announcement of "Welcome to the Australians," who on their part on the night of the 7th made an unwelcomed raid into the enemy trenches whence they returned with several prisoners and with few casualties. This adventure was soon to

be followed by fighting of a more serious character, in which the Anzacs suffered considerably, and before the middle of the month of May nearly five hundred of the Commonwealth and New Zealand troops had been wounded or slain. Nevertheless, raid followed raid into the enemy trenches, and in no case was the result of the gallant Anzacs wholly unsuccessful. The effect of this was that the enemy forces in that section were harassed and worried so much that rest for them was never to be expected —a circumstance that was steadily preparing the way for the time when, worn out by their active foes and by their own fruitless attacks, they would be in no position to permanently withstand the long-preparing general assaults of the Allied hosts. These massed attacks in effect began during the first week of the month of July, and though attended by severe losses were, on the whole, generally successful.

ARMENTIÈRES

The first important attack of this nature in which the Anzacs took the leading part was that made on the evening of the 19th July, when the left wing of the Australian forces rushed on the German trenches south of Armentières, seized the front line, and successfully passed it into the next line of defences beyond.

Meanwhile, the Australian centre captured the whole of the defences immediately in front of them.

The men of the right wing had a more difficult task. There was facing them a much wider interval to be crossed before they could reach the hostile lines than that which had to be traversed by the centre and left divisions, and this terrain was swept by destructive machine-gun fire. The result was that the attacking force suffered severely, and though portions of it reached and momentarily occupied small parts of the enemy trenches, their position was untenable and they had to retire. Assisted by this partial success the enemy directed a heavy and deadly fire on the portions of their lines that had been captured by the left and centre, and to aid the effect of their crowding shot and shell they successfully directed a current of water into the trenches held by the Australians, who were soon up to their waists in the fluid. The result was that after bearing great sufferings and losses for eleven hours the position so gallantly won on the previous evening had to be abandoned, and save for the fact that, early in the

struggle, some two hundred prisoners and several machine-guns had been captured, there was apparently little to show for the expenditure of much valiant Anzac blood.

POZIÈRES

Far other was the result of another attack that began at midnight on the 23rd, when the Australians made a general assault on the positions held by the Germans in the midst of and immediately behind the village of Pozières. The distance to be covered to the German defences was, in places, as much as 550 yards, and over the greater portion of this there was little cover for the advancing troops, though the ground was much holed and broken through the effect of heavy artillery fire, a fact which was adverse to the advance of a force that was only seeking to rapidly arrive at the enemy's position.

There were three lines of defences to be assailed, and of these the Anzacs took the first with comparative ease and with but little loss. The second line was much more strongly held by the enemy, who were able to use their machine-guns and heavy artillery with effect and necessarily with many casualties to the attacking force. The resistance of the enemy here was of a most desperate character; nevertheless the Anzacs by dint of grim fighting at every step forced their way through to the third line of defence. Fresh masses of the enemy were brought up from time to time from other positions of their lines, and with these repeated attempts were made to recover the ground the Australians had won; but each successive assault was repulsed with great slaughter, and though the foe, despite enormous losses, persisted in these attacks during the whole of the 24th and portion of the 25th, by the evening of the previous date the Australians had firmly established themselves in the ruins of the village of Pozières. This position had been defended by over two hundred machine-guns, most of which were destroyed by the fierce bombardment from the British artillery; but thirty of them were captured in good order.

Referring to the Australians in connection with this long and stubbornly contested but victorious advance, the London correspondent of one of the leading American newspapers stated in his report that "the Australians are recognized as the most dashing of all the British troops."

Another established American writer, dealing with the same subject, wrote: "To the Australians is due the glory of to-day's action. The officers recognized that Pozières was a hard nut to crack and the task was given to the Australians, who have plenty of initiative." Some critics had said: "They were all right at Gallipoli; they were not against Germans. To-day, their first great test in France, they showed their quality." Another correspondent, referring to the fighting on the 24th, stated: "An epic struggle is proceeding at Pozières. The Australians are fighting terrifically on both sides of the village."

An officer of one of the London regiments that co-operated on one side in the storming of Pozières stated: "The Anzacs bore the brunt of the gruelling, but were always in line with them. They were like lions at large and revelled in the fray. These great fellows' example spurred us on at every turn, even to face the deadliest machine-gun fire. It was a sight to stir the blood to see the Anzacs and Londoners stand up to the Kaiser's élite."

One of the best known of the Parisian journals, in eulogising the success of the Anzacs, stated that "the most desperate efforts of the Bavarians were unavailing against the antipodean fury"; whilst a captured German colonel, in lamenting that his war-weary men were unable to withstand the fresh Australian troops when at close quarters, remarked: "The Australians are very brave and do not fear death." He added that he had never seen finer soldiers than those who captured Pozières. Another German, a Berlin war correspondent, in referring to the Anzacs after his Pozières experience of them, wrote to his journal: "They are good marksmen and fearful fighters, hard as steel; but not a single Bavarian feared them as they came storming forward and crossed 'No Man's Land.'"

An interesting tribute came in a Paris semi-official message, which stated: "They (the Anzacs) were anxious for their debut on the Western Front. They realized their wish to capture Pozières. What they accomplished there confirms their reputation for courage and shows that the martial spirit is animating these young troops.

"A great spirit of camaraderie prevails amongst the Anzacs. The officers and soldiers of these splendid troops fraternize on the battlefield, inspiring each other with mutual confidence."

When comparing the Anzacs as fighters with the Germans,

the correspondent of the London *Daily News* stated: "They always win in an equal fight on open ground. The German infantry now fears to meet them. These troops will even hold captured positions under a hidden enfilading fire from a hundred batteries."

Another London war correspondent, when contrasting to some extent the Anzacs with the British soldiery, wrote: "The Australians are still fighting in a way which wins the admiration of the General Staff and all the army. These clean-cut men are so fine in physique and appearance that one always turns to look at them in the street or war arena. They are stolid fellows, who can stand the test of shell-fire without suffering in spirit. They are highly strung and sensitive, with a more nervous temperament than many English soldiers, but possess pride, and that heroic quality which keeps them steady. They are also more intelligent individually, and in mass, which makes them great soldiers. They are now doing wonderful work at Pozières, such as will tell upon the enemy in his efforts to hold his ground at all costs."

The Paris correspondent of the *New York World* in describing the Pozières assaults, stated that the Australians were terrific in attack and that backed by the French artillery they would be invincible; whilst the Berlin correspondent of the same newspaper pronounced that in fighting that was "the greatest, bloodiest, and most terrible conflict known in History," the valour of the Anzacs paled that displayed in the much glorified charge of the Light Brigade, or that of the thin red lines that triumphed at Inkerman. This, the journalist stated, because each advance in the region of Pozières, even as had been the case a year before at Anzac Beach and Lone Pine, meant entering storms of lead more destructive by far than such as were known to the forlorn hopes of former wars; yet our men rushed into those fearful blasts with a cheer on their lips though knowing full well that in an instant more they would probably fall beneath its deadly hail, as fall the leaves in the northern world before a driving autumnal gale.

Other observers told of the "gallantry, dash, and unconquerable fighting spirit of the Anzacs." A French general praised their "magnificent valour, cool courage, and tenacity"; whilst it was asserted that the French people generally "were filled with admiration for them."

Such were the facts and such were the tributes that accompanied the opening campaign of the heroes of Anzac on the soil of France, and it was hosts of such men as they that the Australian people had been confidently and regularly assured would be unable to defend their own country from such forces as a distant enemy might be able to land on its shores.

DELVILLE WOOD

After several days spent in consolidating their gains at Pozières and in extending them, during which their position was exposed to a tremendous bombardment, the Anzacs succeeded in clearing the Germans from their last defences, adjacent to the village. Their next task was then promptly allotted. It was that of clearing a bit of forest country, known as Delville Wood. This wooded locality had, prior to the advance of the Anzacs, been no less than four times taken by the British and as often recaptured by the enemy. The attack of the Anzacs began early on the morning of the 27th of July, and it was their object to clear it of the defending Brandenburgers, who were deservedly ranked as amongst the finest troops of the German Empire. The way was prepared for the Australians by a furious and terribly destructive bombardment which it seemed impossible to the observer that any of the defending troops could survive. This storm of shot and shell was even dangerously continued over the heads of the Australians as they moved into the wood. Their attack was made through ghastly scenes of horror, and eventually proved wholly successful, and this time for good, for the Germans, though they managed for a considerable time to hold a portion of the northern side of the wood, were in the end finally driven from their last defences there.

POZIÈRES RIDGE

Little rest—perhaps too little, having regard to their numbers—was given to the Anzac forces after their heavy work at Pozières village and Delville Wood, for on the night of the 4th of August they were again detailed for a serious attack on the enemy lines which for about 3000 yards fronted the recently captured ruins of Pozières.

The right portion of the hostile trenches was the objective of

the Anzac battalions, whilst several English regiments were to move on the left section of them. The assault was preceded by a bombardment which in a great measure destroyed the enemy trenches and left what remained of them untenable by the surviving defenders, who were so demoralised by their terrible experience that they made little effective resistance. Hence the casualties of the attacking troops were not great, having regard also to the results obtained. These consisted of a ridge northward of Pozières, with a series of trenches and two surface works. It was claimed of these captures, at the British headquarters, that the value of the gains were not estimable.

Because the result of the attack had given the British in the Pozières Ridge valuable strategetical advantages for a further advance, the Germans made determined and costly attempts during the next three days to regain the whole or part of the ground they had lost, and these were attended with some success at points ; but, eventually, the enemy was driven from them and away back from Pozières with heavy losses in killed, wounded and prisoners. In this fighting the Anzacs also suffered, and much more severely than in that which had attended their victorious advance on the night of the 4th. Referring to this, one of the correspondents stated : " The Anzacs won fresh glory in yesterday's fighting north of Pozières, where they firmly held the trenches skirting the Bapaume road against the attack of three Saxon and Bavarian regiments. Both sides lost heavily during knife and revolver fighting ; but the Colonials did not yield. Their magnificent resistance enabled a British unit to attack the enemy on the left flank and drive them to the north-west." To this it might be added that " the gallantry and mettle of the Anzacs " from their advance on the 4th to the final defeat of the German counter-attacks was much commended by correspondents of the American Press, whilst another observer, when referring to the time that immediately preceded the attack, and to the charge itself, praises the Australians, who " for days have been grimly holding the village of Pozières against a tornado of German shells. They charged over a two-mile front, sweeping the Germans several hundreds of yards back."

To these testimonies may be added the remarks of the official correspondent attached to the Australian army. He stated : " When history comes to be written this battle of Pozières Ridge will certainly rank with the battle of Pozières village and with

the landing[1] and battle[2] of August, 1915, as four of the hardest battles ever fought by Australian troops—indeed amongst the hardest fought by any army."

To record even a small portion of the incidents of Anzac valour, initiative and decision in the midst of terrible emergencies in and northward of Pozières would be impossible in these pages; but one of them may be quoted as an evidence of many displays of these qualities that there, and indeed in every scene of hostilities, from the outset of the war distinguished the soldiers of the Commonwealth and Dominion. When the Anzacs, in their attack on Pozières, had captured the first line of the German trenches and had advanced into the second, a counter-attack by a considerable number of the enemy succeeded in isolating some fifty Australians and in compelling them to surrender. At this moment in a dug-out near by was a corporal named Jacka with six other Australians. Observing, in this crisis, that Australian support was advancing towards the scene, Jacka and his comrades rushed from their shelter shouting and with fixed bayonets at the momentarily victorious Germans, who, though some two hundred in number—thinking, no doubt, that the corporal's party was but the advance guard of a larger force—did not attempt to resist, but either fled or surrendered. Thus, by the daring and decision of the corporal, with his handful of men, was the situation entirely reversed, and in place of there being a captured half-company of Anzacs in the hands of the enemy the Australians, rescuers and rescued, returned to their lines with a number of the outwitted Germans as prisoners.

MOURNFUL TIDINGS—THE CASUALTIES

As might well be expected, the news of the struggles that began at Armentières, and which were marked by such battles as that of the capture of Pozières and of Pozières Ridge was soon to be followed to Australia and New Zealand by long and deplorable lists of casualties. One of these told of 640 Australians who were killed or wounded, another contained 1602 names, and these, succeeding intelligence received within a few weeks of the arrival of the Anzacs in France that 480 wounded Aus-

[1] The landing at Anzac Beach.
[2] The battle at Lone Pine.

tralasians had been removed to England, feelingly told of the sanguinary ordeal through which the gallant sons of the Commonwealth and Dominion had been passing since they entered the trenches on the Western Front. Referring, after the capture of Pozières Ridge, to this and the conduct of the Anzacs, General Birdwood wrote :

" Our boys have been going through a lot of terribly hard fighting during the past three weeks, and they have done simply magnificently ; no words can half express my feelings for their courage and determination in sticking it out, as they had day after day to face the most tremendously heavy bombardments. We have not only captured Pozières, but, going further on, have taken much more difficult high ground, above and beyond the town, whereon were the main German entrenchments, but I am sorry to say that, as was inevitable, our casualties have been heavy."

They were heavy indeed, sadly rivalling those of the worst days of the Gallipoli assaults ; but few knew at first that they totalled thousands in number.

Had the full extent of the losses been made known just as the newspapers were able to publish them the effect might have been to give their readers in Australia and New Zealand a most serious shock ; but in spite of attempts to soften the news by dividing it over a number of days it began to be widely known in the early part of the third week of the month of August that the losses of the Anzac army had been enormous, and that to the crowds of mourners for the dead of Gallipoli would be added another and not less numerous host of bereaved to deplore the death of men they loved on the blood-soaked fields of northern France.

THE WINDMILL RIDGE

Scarcely had the series of desperate attempts of the enemy to regain Pozières Ridge been finally abandoned when the Anzacs were deputed to storm another elevation rising to the westward of it. This was surmounted by a windmill which the foe had resolved to hold at all hazards, and which overlooked the village of Martinpuich, also occupied by his forces.

Up the slopes of the windmill heights successive waves of the stormers streamed with men dropping fast at every step in the first onset, and, thereafter, over ground thickly strewn with still or writhing figures that a while before had been filled with hope and strength to reach the goal. If it was not theirs to reach it, their comrades did, and, driving the enemy from their trenches before and behind it, they held the position so dearly won from counter-attacks in which the enemy suffered such losses that few of them escaped to tell the tale to their friends behind. Of those of them who were captured, some remarked that they knew from what they had learned of the Australians that with them in front the German's attack was doomed to failure and their fate as hopeless as that of sheep being driven to slaughter.

Each day after the winning of Windmill Ridge brought its tale of fighting and deadly work; but further progress was painfully slow, and it was not till near the end of the third week of the August struggle that the Anzacs had pushed the enemy back some 300 yards beyond the windmill defences. This position brought them about a mile north-west from their first great gain—the Pozières village. In that mile were the enemy's second and main line of entrenchments, besides a number of lesser trenches, the whole forming a complete section of well-designed and supporting defences, which the Germans considered were a safe and certain barrier. But all their skill and valiant defence had only availed to delay for days the Anzac advance, which might be halted or even recoil, but in the end would always show a further gain towards Thiepval, which was its next objective point.

Referring to the fighting that began at Pozières and which had been continuous and sanguinary, an official correspondent reported: "It is quite impossible to tell the full story of this magnificent struggle at present. Much of the sterling and won-

derful work that is done every day must wait for recognition; but when Australians can hear the story in full they will glow with pride in their countrymen."

CHAPTER XVI

THE ANZACS IN EGYPT AFTER GALLIPOLI

After the evacuation of the Gallipoli peninsula the Anzac army was removed to Egypt, where it remained till the month of March, when, the services of the greater part of the infantry and artillery being demanded on the Western Front, they were transferred to that quarter, whilst the mounted brigades with some foot and artillery units were left to co-operate with Imperial troops in the defence of the Canal and the Nile valley.

From an early stage of the war the Turks had been threatening to advance on Egypt from Syria, and as far back as the first month of the year 1915 they had made near Ismailia a serious but wholly abortive attempt to capture a part of the Canal. From that time onward, for more than a year and a half, they contented themselves with menaces of another advance and with stirring up the Senussi tribe and other Bedouins to attack Egypt from the Tripolitan frontier. In the latter policy they were partly successful; but their African allies were completely defeated by a force largely consisting of Australians and New Zealand mounted units. After this repulse there still remained the possibility of further trouble from the west, and this contingency constantly required the attention of moving units of the Light Horse and the New Zealand Mounted Rifles, which were more suitable for this duty than Imperial cavalry. But the danger from the western side was by no means as serious as that which might at any moment attend the persistent menaces of an attack on the Canal from the Sinai Peninsula. Whilst threatening rumours from that quarter were always to be heard, the Turks for more than a year and a half had hesitated to act, and this long delay enabled the British, by carefully provided land and water defences, to render the Canal practically impregnable to any attack from the eastern side, except by an army far outnumbering the defenders, and such a force it was con-

sidered could not be moved across the Sinai desert without railways, which the Turks had not the means to provide.

BATTLE OF ROMANI

However, on the 4th of August, 1916, or on the same date that the Anzacs in France were advancing to victory at Pozières, a force variously estimated at from 14,000 to 18,000 Turks and Arabs moved from the oasis of Katia on the British defences at Romani, which were held by Imperial troops. Whilst one portion of the would-be invaders made a frontal attack on the British lines another section of them moved off to the south with the intent to attack from that direction. This force was faced and checked by the First Brigade of Australian Light Horse, which slowly retired before the advancing enemy to an elevation known as Wellington Ridge. There, being joined by the Second Brigade, the united force prepared to make a determined resistance.

After shelling the position for some hours the Turks charged with cries of "Allah! Finish Australia." But they were received with a deadly fire, before which they recoiled, and though they made further assaults, in each case the result was similar. As the enemy, wearied and discouraged by failure, showed signs of retiring the Light Horse Brigades, together with the new New Zealand Mounted Rifles, who had previously driven the enemy from an elevation known as Mount Royston, assumed the offensive.

Before the advancing brigades the Turks hastily fell back on the Katia oasis, where they were assailed by the whole of the available British force. This general attack was completely successful, and the Turks were again compelled to retreat. Besides heavy losses in their series of attacks, over 3000 of them, including 70 German officers and men, together with a battery of field guns, were captured.

The series of conflicts that made up what may be known as the long-drawn-out Battle of Romani were shared in by the Third Brigade, which arrived later on the scene than the First and Second. It delivered a flank attack on the Turks at Hamish, two miles to the south of the Katia oasis.

Commenting on the part taken by the Anzac forces in the Romani struggle the war correspondent of a great London newspaper wrote :

"These magnificent troops fought with a tenacity, courage, and endurance comparable with their greatest deeds in Gallipoli. Their part in overthrowing the attempt to reach the Canal will stand out as one of the finest achievements of the colonial troops during the war, and illumine the pages of the Anzacs' short but illustrious military history.

"The Light Horse success paved the way for our triumph, and the Battle of Romani was made absolutely sure of success when the New Zealanders drove off the enemy from Mount Royston and the infantry thrust them back towards Katia."

BIR-EL-ABD

After the complete failure of their assault on Romani and their disastrous retreat to and then from Katia, the Turks were compelled, under the incessant pressure of the Anzac brigades, to continue their retrograde movement as far as Bir-el-Abd, where they halted, and on the 9th endeavoured to throw back the pursuing forces. Twice their counter-attacks were repulsed with great slaughter. Their third attempt was more fiercely persistent, and though it wholly failed to attain the object desired, it had the result of temporarily suspending the British advance. Five days of fighting, since the 4th, during which the Anzac brigades had borne the burden and heat of the day, had had their effect on these splendid men. Their losses had been far more severe than those that were suffered by the foot and artillery, as many a home in the Commonwealth and Dominion would know full well and long have to deplore the death or maiming of gallant men.

In spite of their losses the Anzacs never for a moment lost touch of the enemy. His rearguard had been constantly attacked during the retirement to Bir-el-Abd, and though as the result of the heavy fighting at that place the pursuit had to be temporarily suspended, the Turkish lines were still menaced, whilst a flanking movement of an Anzac force to the northward threatened to cut the enemy communications.

In the face of these facts and the difficulty of obtaining supplies and reinforcements in that part of the desert the Turks, on the third day after the battle of Bir-el-Abd, had to resolve to resume their retreat, but this action they were in no position to take in

the presence of an enterprising and victorious enemy without ridding themselves first of a great portion of the material that still remained to them. They accordingly destroyed by fire all of their stores that were not imperatively necessary. This material, together with that which had been hastily abandoned to the pursuing force during the retreat from Romani and Katia amounted to a huge total, and as, in addition, the prisoners taken by the British had increased to 3920 and the casualties to 5250 by the 12th of the month the Turkish force which then retreated from Bir-el-Abd was incapable, without heavy reinforcements and largely renewed supplies, of further effective hostility. Thus, for the time, and probably for the duration of the war, was Egypt relieved of the danger of invasion from the east, as it had been at an early period in the previous year of the Senussi menace on the western frontier. These brilliant services were mainly achieved by the Anzac brigades, and it was especially due to their incessant work and dauntless valour that the complete failure of the Turks at Romani and their retirement from the enterprise, which began there and ended at Bir-el-Abd, must be attributed. In fact the victory in the whole campaign was primarily due to the mounted brigades, and without their splendid services—services that few troops in the world could have equalled—it is highly probable that the enemy would have succeeded in reaching the Canal, when a deadly blow would have been given to the Empire of Britain in one of its vitally necessary connections, and thus the previously favourable position of the allied cause would have been seriously changed for the worse.

Perhaps the most important testimony as to the value of the services rendered by the Anzac mounted troops in the operations that began at Romani and ended at Bir-el-Abd is afforded in the report of the Commander-in-Chief of the Egyptian forces wherein he stated: "During the whole of these operations the brunt of the fighting fell on the Australian and New Zealand Mounted Division under General Chauvel. This division finely upheld the traditions of the Commonwealth and Dominion troops. It fought with great steadfastness, gallantry and untiring energy throughout. Its commander and all its men have every right to be proud of their achievements, and have the satisfaction of knowing that for each one of their casualties they accounted for about ten of the enemy. I wish to place on record

my warm appreciation of the services of the Commonwealth and Dominion troops."

CHAPTER XVII

PROPOSED COMPULSION

Whilst the troops of Australia and New Zealand were adding in France to the glory they had won at Anzac, it began to be doubted by many in Australia and New Zealand whether the voluntary system of enlistment would suffice to produce a sufficient flow of recruits to replace the wastage of the war. Moved by this impression the New Zealand Government decided to adopt a system of direct compulsion.

Accordingly a measure to give effect to that decision was submitted to the New Zealand Parliament, and after an ineffectual opposition by a small group of Labour Members became law in the month of July. Weeks before that event it was officially announced by Mr. W. Massey, the Prime Minister of the Dominion, that New Zealand had up till then despatched on active service no less than 1584 officers and 46,826 men of other ranks, making a total of 48,410 soldiers from a population of little more than one million souls, or nearly one-fifth of the total able-bodied manhood of a fighting age, a fact that, when allowance is made for the men imperatively required to carry on the industries of the country, was certainly highly creditable to the voluntary system that had been in force while that great enlistment was made.

In Australia a strong and active propaganda in favour of compulsion was in progress simultaneously with, and subsequent to, the New Zealand movement; but owing to the fact that a powerful section of the Labour Party adopted an attitude of strong hostility, there seemed to be little probability that the Labour Government of the Commonwealth would seriously attempt to enact a compulsory law for foreign service, though it was hoped by the supporters of that policy that when the Prime Minister returned from Great Britain his potent influence would be employed to convert the Labour opposition to such an extent as might suffice to permit of the successful enforcement of a compulsory system.

In the meantime meetings were held by those favourable to compulsion, but as most of those who attended them were of the party adverse to the Labour Party they could not be fairly accounted as fully representative of the people generally. Moreover, it was officially announced, whilst they were being held, by Mr. Pearce, the Minister for Defence, that the Commonwealth promises to the British Government of contingents and reinforcements had been amply fulfilled, and that it was more than doubtful, even had there been a compulsory law in force, that Australia could have sent more men away on active service than had actually been despatched. He asserted also that at the time there were sufficient recruits available and coming forward to supply the war wastage for several months, and added that by the end of the month of June the Commonwealth would have made the great contribution of 286,000 to the service of the Empire, a record that it may be justly affirmed would exceed the total of the forces that Great Britain had sent to the South African war, during which it was widely believed and stated that the safety of the Empire was gravely menaced.

Whilst meetings were being held throughout the Commonwealth in favour of conscription for foreign service the opponents of that policy made various attempts to hold others to oppose it ; but these were as a rule unsuccessful, because the returned soldiers, of whom there were many in each of the large centres of population, systematically set themselves to break up the gatherings of the anti-conscriptionists, and as the whole of the daily and most of the weekly newspapers were rather favourable to such tactics and were at the same time persistently denouncing opposition to compulsory service, it came about that whilst there was undoubtedly a considerable section of the people who were opposed to compulsion and who believed that Australia had, in proportion to its population, done as much as portions of the Empire that were through their position more directly concerned in the war, they had very little opportunity to make their sentiments known. They were thus debarred from the chance of making converts to their cause, which instead of progressing went backward daily, for when all the propaganda, argument and pressure were on one side, naturally that one grew in strength even more than the opposite position weakened. This state of affairs was considerably emphasized after the return of the Prime Minister in the early part of the month of August, for he was, and had

been for years past, a pronounced Imperialist, with little in common with those who favoured Australian Nationalist ideas; and it was, apart from those who were moved only by trade-unionist motives, mainly men of Nationalist views who were opposed to the policy of conscription, as indeed they were to all measures they thought were calculated to weaken Australia's control of her own resources. From these circumstances as the days advanced increasing pressure was brought to bear on the National Government, and towards the end of the month of August it seemed likely that its former adverse attitude might be greatly modified or even changed to one directly favourable to compulsion.

The pressure brought to bear on the Commonwealth Government grew in strength from day to day. There were various factors at work, of which the most potent was a very general feeling on the part of the relatives of the soldiers on active service that if the eligible men who had not volunteered were compelled to join the men in the fighting line, it would be to the advantage of the latter. In some way in fact the soldiers' relatives considered that the five millions of Australians could send so many men into the fighting line that they would decide the war; yet the majority of those who held this belief were equally convinced that Australia was totally unable to defend her own shores, and that whilst she might, if their wishes prevailed, send perhaps half a million of her manhood to fight in the northern hemisphere she could not raise for her own defence enough troops to repel an invasion. But whatever might be their ideas on that question, what really mattered was that they were strongly of opinion that compulsion should be used, and backed as they were by the solid and continuous support of all the daily papers, by social influence and other factors, they and those who supported conscription because they thought it necessary were, at the time of the conclusion of this History, gradually gaining a predominant position in the national councils.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE COMMONWEALTH AND NEW ZEALAND—THEIR PART GENERALLY

THE tale of the part that was taken by Australia and New Zealand in the great epic of the Dardanelles, in France, and in Egypt does not end with a narrative of the deeds, the endurance and the sufferings of the men who lived or died there. Much more might be told of the giant efforts that were made by the two countries, distant as they were by thousands of miles from the scene of hostilities. Let it be briefly related that the first contingents were joined by others and by reinforcement after reinforcement, till, at last, as these pages draw to their close, the Commonwealth alone was seriously contemplating having at the scene of hostilities nearly one-third of the total of the able-bodied manhood of the country. This undertaking, it is needless to state, would be one of a stupendous and almost portentous character.

Above and beyond its priceless assistance in men, the Commonwealth had, according to official statements, pledged its credit for the fifteen months of war, ending November 1915, to the stupendous total of 72 millions of pounds, a sum which, at the present time, would probably exceed 85 millions sterling, and be equal proportionately to a greater amount than the British National Debt was before the South African War, whilst this vast expenditure was incurred wholly for war purposes.

Besides the national outlay, the Commonwealth and Dominion freely donated money and stores to the amount of millions of pounds for relief funds in Europe, from Poland to Serbia. Nor may we fail to add to this record of services, that the ships that had cleared the enemy squadron from the southern oceans were then sent forth to the northern seas to obey there the behests of the Imperial Admiralty.

When all these facts are recollected, it may be stated, with a mingling of grief and pride, that the two far-distant lands, in the South Pacific, have given of their bravest and best and that their contribution to the Imperial War has been one of grand and noble proportions.

The tale of the labour and vast sacrifices freely endured during more than two years of the mighty struggle by the two countries that were never themselves really endangered, except through their loyalty to Britain, the glorious deeds and sufferings of their gallant troops amidst the blood-stained ridges of Anzac and Suvla Bay, on the burning sands of the Egyptian and Sinai deserts and in and between the shell-scourged trenches of northern France, form a grand volume of heroic endeavours and great achievements that will be read with a mingling of mourning and national pride by the youth of Australia and New Zealand from generation to generation.

Firmly convinced of this and that the narrative of them that has been put forth in these pages, together with that of the events that preceded them from the earliest dawn of Australia's history, will furnish an ample source of information and interest to the youth of Australia and New Zealand, the story of the Commonwealth and Dominion is brought to a close with the hope that whilst affording useful information, it will deepen the patriotism of their sons and daughters for the land of their birth, imbue them with pride in its great achievements and encourage them in their duty to safely preserve the splendid heritage which their dauntless, pioneer fathers toilsomely won from primeval wildness and bequeathed to their care as a land fit to inspire high thought and great ideals and to be the permanent seat of a mighty race.

APPENDIX

Since the establishment of the Commonwealth, the following gentlemen have held the office of Governor-General :—

Rt. Hon. Earl of Hopetoun, sworn 1st January, 1901 ; recalled 9th May, 1902.
Rt. Hon. Hallam Baron Tennyson, sworn 17th July, 1902 ; recalled 21st January, 1904.
Rt. Hon. Henry Stafford Northcote, sworn 21st January, 1904 ; recalled 8th September, 1908.
Rt. Hon. William Humble, Earl of Dudley, sworn 9th September, 1908 ; recalled 31st July, 1911.
Rt. Hon. Thomas Baron Denman, sworn 31st July, 1911 ; recalled 16th May, 1914.
Rt. Hon. Sir Ronald Crawford Munro-Ferguson, sworn 18th May, 1914—still in office.

Appended are the names of the gentlemen who have held the office of Prime Minister since the founding of the Commonwealth :—

Rt. Hon. Edmund Barton from 1st January, 1901, to 23rd September, 1903.
Hon. Alfred Deakin from 24th September, 1903, to 26th April, 1904.
Hon. John Christian Watson from 27th April, to 17th August, 1904.
Rt. Hon. George Houston Reid from 18th August, 1904, to 4th July, 1905.
Hon. Alfred Deakin from 5th July, 1905, to 12th November, 1908.
Hon. Andrew Fisher from 13th November, 1908, to 2nd June, 1909.
Hon. Alfred Deakin from 2nd June, 1909, to 29th April, 1910.
Rt. Hon. Andrew Fisher from 29th April, 1910, to 20th June, 1913.
Hon. Joseph Cook from 20th June, 1913, to 17th September, 1914.
Rt. Hon. Andrew Fisher from 17th September, 1914, to 31st October, 1915.
Hon. William Morris Hughes from 27th November 1915—still in office.

It has occurred to the writer that for the benefit of the younger readers or students it would be advisable to add to the historical records, a chapter dealing with Citizenship, its duties and privileges, as they appear to him, and in order to save repetition of the masculine and feminine nouns or pronouns, it is asked that the masculine words used in the appended chapter will include both genders.

CITIZENSHIP—ITS DUTIES

A citizen is one who is possessed of a right to a share in the government of the country or State of which he forms a part.

In Democracies such as prevail in Australia and New Zealand every adult of the age of twenty-one and upwards who is not barred by crime or mental disability is entitled to the rights of citizenship and is thus invested with a voice in the government of the Commonwealth, together with the several States which form it, and the Dominion. From this it follows that if it were convenient, or possible, the laws for the direction of the State would be directly made by an assembly of all its adults; but as it is neither convenient nor possible for the entire manhood of a country to assemble together to make its laws, it is the custom in every Democracy for the citizens to depute a certain number of their body to undertake that duty for them. The representatives so chosen, when assembled together, form a body that is known as the Parliament of the country. Representing the rights of all the citizens and possessed by their free gift of the power of doing, within the lines of the Constitution, whatsoever it thinks best for the good of the State, it is both the duty and to the interest of Parliament to exercise its prerogatives to the best of its judgment in accordance with the interests and desires of those who elected it.

So that every person should have a fair chance to fit himself to perform the duties of citizenship in an intelligent manner; to understand the existing laws of the land and his responsibilities to his fellow-citizens, laws have been made by which the advantages of education are brought within the reach of everyone, however poor, and as these have now been available for a considerable time there ought to be few of those who are growing up in Australia or New Zealand who will be unfitted through ignorance to worthily perform their duties as citizens.

When the people are generally intelligent and take an active interest in the proceedings of their representatives, and this is the case in every Australasian State, Parliament invariably does endeavour to carry out its duties in harmony with the objects for which its members were elected. Hence, all its laws are made in

accordance with what it deems to be the best interests of the citizens, and, therefore, they should be unhesitatingly obeyed and supported by every member of the community. But Parliament is not infallible and, even with the best intentions, sometimes makes laws which seem injudicious. Still, even these laws, while they are in force, should be as respectfully obeyed as those that appear wise; for they are equally the work of those who were acting to the best of their judgment for the welfare of the State. But while a citizen should obey what he thinks to be a bad law, he has a perfect right to use his influence with his representatives in Parliament to induce them to amend or abolish it, and if he fails to get his wishes attended to by the Parliament that made the law, he knows that after a certain period another Parliament must be chosen and he can then endeavour both by his vote and by his influence with his fellow-electors, to have among the candidates for legislative honours those elected who will support his views. Should he then be unsuccessful in getting representatives chosen who are favourable to his ideas, he will know that it is because a majority of the electors are satisfied that the law which he deemed to be injudicious is really a good one. It then becomes his duty once more to respectfully submit; though he may still retain the hope of getting the law amended at some future date. From this it follows, that it is always the duty of a good citizen to be submissive to the existing laws of the land. But the duty of the citizen to the State does not end with obeying the laws. He is endowed with a voice in the selection of those who, as a Parliament, are to make them, and it is as much incumbent on him to use that privilege so that good legislators may be appointed as it is to respectfully submit to the laws that are made.

THE FIRST PRIME MINISTER

As has been shown in the record of Federation, the Governor-General, at the inception of the Commonwealth, sent, in the first instance, for Sir William Lyne, who was then Premier of New South Wales, and that this selection caused a large amount of dissatisfaction amongst Federalists. It may be fitting to state, in this connection, that the writer addressed an open letter, on the subject, to Lord Hopetoun (which follows these explanatory remarks) wherein he points out the claims of Mr. Barton; the fact that Sir William Lyne had not the confidence of Federalists and that the destinies of the infant Commonwealth should not be committed into the hands of a gentleman who had proved himself an opponent. A copy of this letter was also delivered in manuscript at Government House. It might be added that the document was of such a

nature that no attempt was made to send it to the Press, as an ordinary contribution, and, in consequence, it was published at the writer's expense.

In justice to Sir William Lyne, it may, now, be stated that the writer is quite confident that if he had been supported in his task of attempting to form a Ministry there is every reason to believe that he would have been loyal to his new position, had he been successful in holding it, and that he would have conducted his Government on Australian lines; for though personal ambition had made him take up a hostile position to the Federal cause, he was at heart a good Australian. Nay, more, it is highly probable that the Secession movement that has been referred to in the History would not have ensued; for Lyne was imbued with national ideas, though of a narrow type and perverted by policy.

To the Rt. Hon. Earl of Hopetoun, P.C., K.T., G.C.M.G., Governor-General of the Commonwealth of Australia.

Your Excellency,—It is now about twenty-five years since I, then a boy just leaving school, began to write in prose and verse in favour of a union of the divided provinces of my country. At that time and for long afterwards, the vast bulk of the people of this State were ignorant even of the meaning of the word "Federation," as applied to a political policy, and it was not till I had been writing on the subject from time to time for some seven years, that the first symptoms of interest began to be taken in the question by men of influence in the political world of Sydney. About this time, Sir Henry Parkes and, later on, Mr. Edmund Barton commenced, successively, to make their first movements in the national cause whose triumph to-day endows you with one of the proudest titles under the Imperial sceptre.

Sir Henry Parkes has passed away, but his services to the cause will not be forgotten in the pages of our history and that is his reward and his sole reward; but Mr. Barton lives and it was his to be the acknowledged leader—the Federal leader, as even his opponents called him—up to the hour of his final triumph. I remember to this day, the joy I experienced when I heard his first declaration of unqualified adherence to the national cause. It was when he was a candidate, and a successful one, for the constituency of East Sydney that he made his avowal that he would, thenceforth, place the cause of Australian Unity before all others, and it was with feelings of hopefulness for the early triumph of the ideal of my life that I turned from the scene. Yet many years were to pass away ere that triumph was to be assured, and during nearly the

whole of that period, either as lieutenant to Sir Henry Parkes, or (subsequently) as leader-in-chief, Mr. Edmund Barton was in the eye of all true Federalists, the coming, or actual hope of the movement. Needless to state that all through he received such assistance in his propaganda as would be given by one like myself whose single thought was to work for the day when the Southern Cross should float over a land united in all her borders. I affirm this not to boast of what I have done, but because, in the day of triumph, those who toiled year after year to prepare and make ready the minds of their countrymen for the acceptance of the Union cause bid fair to be forgotten and neglected; whilst men who never lifted a finger to forward the movement and, even, some who, like prominent politicians of this State, did their utmost on all occasions to destroy it, now stand in the forefront—yea, in the high places of the Synagogue directing the pæans that are being sung in praise of that triumph which they had most strenuously sought to prevent. For myself, I stood alone in the crowd on the Saturday which witnessed your arrival whilst men drove by in your train who were proud a few months ago to be arrayed under the banner of the personage who was wont to style himself the "Arch-enemy of Federation." Mr. Barton, it is true, was the cynosure of many eyes in the procession; but he, instead of being in the place of honour, next to yourself, followed some whose narrow intellects could never rise above the idea that Federation was some dark device on the part of other colonies to rob "our" province. That, also, was the teaching of certain newspapers, which are now presuming to tutor you as to whom you should send for to undertake the task of forming the first Federal Ministry. Is the Governor-General, who is here to uphold the Constitution, to accept the nominee of the late enemies of that Constitution—foes who, when compelled by the logic of facts to give a sullen assent, loudly and fiercely proclaimed that the first duty of the electors of this State was to return men to the Commonwealth Parliament prepared to undo therein the interests of New South Wales, the evils brought about by Federation? Or is the sworn defender of the Constitution to commit its early infancy to the fostering care of one, who, as his Prime Minister, would delight to defend the charge which he had worked for so long whilst it was yet far off, or hidden deep in the womb of the future?

I will not longer take up your Excellency's time; but will simply and respectfully point out that apart from the fact that as it is a principle and practice of British politics that the accepted leader of a movement—and certainly not one of its opponents—shall receive the charge of the conduct of the affairs of that cause in Parliament, so also is it sound policy, in all matters, where various independent factors are concerned, to appoint a man to do business

with them, who is a *persona grata* to all of them. Is this *persona grata* to be found in one who all through the Federal campaign was allied with those who described the other colonies as "wolves" and "robbers," or is he to be found in the man who, whilst his own colony showed its confidence in him by giving him a vast preponderance of votes for the Convention, over all other candidates, was, on all occasions when he met the representatives of the other colonies, placed by them in the proud position of their leader and spokesman?

Leaving the answer to this to your Excellency's judgment, I subscribe myself,

As your most obedient servant,

ROBERT THOMSON.

THE UNKNOWN FIGHTERS

Of those who battled for Australian Unity, afar from the limelight, it was said some years ago in one of the Sydney newspapers:—

"It is probably a common idea that Australian Federation was brought about by certain politicians who were fortunate enough to be in the limelight and were thus seen of all men; but it is, nevertheless, a fact that an immense part of the work of Federation was the preparing of the public mind to receive the idea of a union and that this was done by men who rarely appeared on the public platforms and who received absolutely no recognition of their immense labours for the cause. These men did not pose on the Council of the Federation League; they were not selected to the Convention and they have not sat in the Parliaments of the Commonwealth. Let it never be forgotten that the politician does not take up a forlorn hope; that he does not stake his political life on a hopeless cause; and that it is only when an idea is 'in the air' that the public man begins to take a living interest in it and to consider whether it is one he may advisedly support. Federation was a cause, similar to others in this respect. It was taken up by some first-class men in the public life of this portion of Australia, when the long-continued and strenuous efforts of those who had given their youth and young manhood to the idea of Australian nationality had, at length, brought their ideal within the scope of practical politics and had as Sir Henry Parkes said—placed it 'in the air.' What of these men? What of those who blazed a track to Federation through the wild bush of disunion and who, in season and out of season, kept the ensign of United Australia ever before the eyes of their countrymen and who were well content to be referred to as dreamers and fanatics, if but they could advance by a step that which was the darling hope and aim of their lives?"

AUSTRALIAN PATRIOTIC VERSE

As illustrating some phases of the national movement in Australia from the time when Australia was far off from the era of Federation and when she was in grave danger of being swamped by alien emigration to the times when peace and security reigned the subjoined series of verses by the writer may be of interest.

The first poem was published in Goulburn as far back as the year 1875, when Federation was hardly dreamed of by one person in a thousand.

The Cadet March was written to encourage the boys to gladly submit to compulsory training. It has been set to music.

The subsequent verses tell of a pride in great accomplishments by the Australian People. They are of the age of peace and hope, though the last and most recent is of the time of the present war.

"ADVANCE, AUSTRALIA!"

FAR down from Asia's burning strand,
Fragrant Indian isles expand;
Still on, the southward seamen find,
Amid pure coral reefs enshrin'd,
Unnumbered isles of lovely view
With skies and seas of azure blue.

Far to the west, Australia's rocks
Roll back Pacific's wat'ry shocks,
And 'neath the Southern Cross expand
Her thrice a million miles of land—
That from an ardent sun's embrace
Bring forth a strong and stalwart race.

What though no bard's inspiring lines
Of high-thought muse have shown the signs?
What though no battle's sounding name
Is blazon'd on her scrolls of fame?
Yet shall her sons her honour prize
Dear as her lovely maidens' sighs.

She has no part whose hoary ties
Can stay her onward, upward rise;
But comes a pest, a future curse,
In Asia's swarms and greedy purse—
'Tis not to them the cannon's roar
Need say, "Depart and come no more."

But should time in her onward race
See armed foes our shores menace—
Though Heaven, I pray, keep war away;
Yet, if it comes, the foemen may
Find the fire of patriot zeal
Can nerve our hearts and whet our steel.

One cloud I see, which, if 'tis willed,
May prove with direst portent filled—
Perish the petty border lines,
If they're to mark five States' confines;
Some age might see, on Murray's banks,
The watch fires gleam and hostile ranks.

This trio show their spectres grim,
And could our glorious future dim;
But if our statesmen's laws are wise
O'er two we shall uninjured rise;
Then united from the other's harm,
Trust in the fearless patriot arm.

Then, united, oh! may we ever keep
And from York to Wilson's craggy steep
'Shrine for all a sole regalia,
Graven with "Advance, Australia!"
True to that our sons shall be
Peaceful lords of the Southern Sea.

THE AUSTRALIAN CADETS

THREE cheers for the lads of the cadet parades,
High let the chorus swell,
Of praise for the boys of the young brigades,
That serve Australia well,
When to guard her shores they firmly pray
To be trained in war's array;
And, when staunch and true in arms they stand
At duty's high command,
Australia dear no fear will know,
As in years and arms they grow.

In contempt of fears and of traitorous sneers
Learning the art are they,
To defend their land in the coming years
And danger's call obey;
As shoulder to shoulder, with heads upright,
They march with a manly skill,
With their rifles trim, their eyes all bright,
A nation's hopes at drill;
While Australia smiles o'er ancient fears
And trusts in the coming years.

For no lust of war, for no conqueror's greed,
Our boys in arms we train,
For defence alone in their country's need,
The lads their drilling gain,
And when war clouds strike our peaceful coast
From distant, foreign shores;
For that stern, dark time a warlike host
Grows in cadet boy corps.
For with strength and years their thousands stand
On guard for their own, dear land.

AUSTRALIA AND THE BLOOD-BOND

(Air—"Believe me, if all," etc.)

Australia, dear land of our youth and our birth,
Though thy banner was lowly unfurl'd,
'Twill gloriously shine in the van of the earth
As a herald of peace to the world.

The bards of old Europe her splendours portray,
Throughout many a ponderous tome;
But ah! which of her climes at its best can display
Such charms as our own southern home?

Our fathers proud tell of the great northern lands
Where they roamed in their own childhood's day,
Then we smilingly bow as duty demands
And give them a hearty "Hurrah."

Though the ebb of long years may loosen the ties
With those isles in the far northern main
And our land to a place midst the nations arise
The blood-bond will ever remain.

TO THE AUSTRALIAN BORN

Hail, sons of great Australia's land,
Whose fathers came in days gone by,
From Britain's Isles a pilgrim band,
To make beneath the Southland's sky
New homes, where they might hope to dwell
Free from the grinding, hopeless toil,
The curse that makes all life a hell
To millions on old Europe's soil.

They settled on the wide, lone plains,
In mountain vales, on ocean's shore,
And oft midst failures, loss, and pains
Unquailing, every trial bore—
Seeing beyond a future bright,
Of peace and plenty, restful years,
That some day might their toils requite,
And banish all their cares and fears.

But whether great or small their gains,
They tamed and pioneered for you
A land where, through their laws and brains,
The poorest worker may pursue
His way unvex'd by castes or creeds,
By scornful wealth, or privileg'd power,
Or cruel pangs of sordid needs,
That toil-worn lives elsewhere devour.

They left to your heart's loving care
A noble land, whose warm sunlight
Bathes fruitful plains and valleys fair,
Whose spacious acres, your birthright,
Spread far and wide throughout the land,
Asking but stores of Nature's flood,
Nor sweating labours at your hand,
And stained not yet by battle's blood.

But, sons of an old heroic race,
Not always will your land be free
From foreign rage or war's menace,
Behold! beyond the Northern Sea
Stand armed hosts with watchful eyes.
And shall ye be found ready when
To seize his prey the foeman tries,
Or will ye be found wanting then?

For skill and strength in many a game
Requiring eagle eye and nerve
Your athletes have the proudest name,
Will ye a nobler fame deserve
When battle's danger signals wave,
The cannon thunder and the trumpets blow
The warning note to all the brave,
To arm against the coming foe?

Though your country's sons are rarely told
To serve their land with patriot zeal,
If urged, the answer rings out bold,
"To Australia we'll be true as steel."
But whilst your hearts are sound and true,
When called on in a national way,
It needs that you should learn to woo
The Arts of War in Peace's day.

So let the soul-inspiring cry
Peal through the land full far and wide,
And over mount and valley fly,
That Australians must stand side by side
In mimic war to learn by heart
The warrior's skill on land and sea.
And then, with all the trained man's art,
Keep fair Australia safe and free.

AUSTRALIA

From the dawn of time the northern world
Saw nations rise, decline and fall
And from Empire wide to ruin hurl'd;
Whilst thou far off, scarce known at all
Remain'd the Southland mystery
Till fate's appointed hour;
When a sailor fam'd in history—
Cook sent forth by Britain's power,

Should pierce the veil around thy face
And mark a land, mete to bear
The fruitful seed of a mighty race—
It was thou, Australia, grand and fair.

REFRAIN

Oh! Land that now each tie endears;
Land of our homes, our joys and tears,
Thy sons were left thee sure and free,
Ah! sure and free, they'll keep thee.

For two thousand miles thy eastern side
To the great Pacific faces;
Full west, as far, the Indian's tide
Westralia's coast embraces;
And oft the Pole-kiss'd Southern sweeps
Thy south, in mountain waves—
By Leeuwin's reefs and the Bight's rock-steeps—
Though the Tasman shores it laves;
Whilst northward far, pearl'd seas and straits,
Through corals of tropic climes,
Murmur of danger that darkly waits,
On thy lone, great land in the coming times.

A nation small for a mighty land,
Thy sons are chiefs in ev'ry scene,
Where tests athletic and skill'd demand
Nerves untiring and vision keen;
But proud their sporting viet'ries won,
In field, or wave, or air,
Of things more grand thou hast well begun
To claim a glorious share;
For Anzac's battle deeds proclaimed
Write they heroes far renown'd,
And high in science and music fam'd
Inventors and artists thy name have crown'd.

AUSTRALIAN PATRIOTISM

There are some writings which may be used to good purpose long after the circumstances that immediately originated them have ceased to exist, and this may be fittingly applied to a long letter which was published for the writer by the Editor of the Sydney "Herald," as a reply to the Hon. J. H. Want's oration against Australian Federation and Sentiment. The occasion was one of vital importance to the success of Federation in the New South Wales Parliament. It was thought by many who were favourable to the cause that Mr. Want had crushed it for the time; but on the evening following the appearance of the letter, the Federal resolution which Sir Henry Parkes submitted was carried by an overwhelming majority. The letter is not republished, now, for any immediate reason, but because it contains some lessons in patriotism

which may be of service in the future should ever sectionalism seek to raise its head again, and that is always a possibility. If it never does, it will do no harm for young Australians, who have reaped the fruit of their fathers' work, to be able to learn something of the difficulties that had to be dealt with.

A REPLY TO MR. WANT'S ANTI-FEDERAL SPEECH

To the Editor of the "Herald."

"Sir,—To reply to Mr. Want's anti-Federal and anti-Australian speech is to answer all the objections that have been made, in New South Wales, against Australian Unity and Nationality. Not to reply would be to admit there is a valid case made out against Australian Federation and in favour of the perpetual isolation of this State from the rest of the continent. This word 'perpetual' should not be forgotten by those so-called Nationalists who rubbed their hands with glee during the flow of Mr. Want's torrent of words. Being an Australian, and not merely a New South Welshman, I will take up the glove for Federation by boldly asserting that Mr. Want's speech was made up of a tissue of bald assertions which neither he nor any of his coadjutors in this matter can either prove or justify. Regard for your space forces me to prove my case in the fewest possible number of words. Therefore I will deal with the assertions with as little quotation from the speech as I can help.

To begin: (1) What is the Premier's motive in putting himself at the head of the present Federal movement, why he introduced it at the time he did, or where he first committed himself to it, has nothing to do with the issue of whether Federation is for the benefit of the people of this colony or not. If the Premier had other motives in the matter than those of a good citizen, that is his look out. It is not, indeed, upon his motives that the subject must be dealt with, but whether it be for our good or the reverse.

(2) Victoria and Queensland are not distant, but adjoining, countries; they are not foreign countries, but parts of Australia, separated from New South Wales by merely arbitrary lines and they are inhabited by precisely the same kind and race of people that dwell in this colony. There is, indeed, no difference in manner, appearance, or in any other respect between the animal, vegetable or mineral productions of this colony and those of any other part of Australia, within the limits of the temperate zone. Hence, Australia is one indivisible country. Mr. Want's quotation from the 'St. James' Gazette' is a distinct corroboration of this fact—if corroboration were required of that which every travelled Australian has had ocular proof of. But it is almost superfluous, even in Mr. Want's case; for, after speaking of other parts of Australia as

almost foreign lands, he proceeds a little later on to say, 'These natural and physical differences do not exist in Australia."

(3) Mr. Want quotes a newspaper of the year 1884, to show there was dissatisfaction about that time in the Province of Ontario with some actions of the Parliament of the Dominion of Canada. That such a quotation should have been made is about as good a proof as can be produced that during the last five years the machinery of Federation has worked well in Canada. If not why not quote from one of the hundreds of newspapers between 1885 and 1890 ?

(4) Referring again to Canada, Mr. Want assures us that one of the chief reasons why there was a necessity for Federation was because 'the conflict of interests there is very remarkable'; yet, later on, he proceeds to argue against Australian Federation, because the interests of New South Wales conflict with those of the other parts of Australia.

(5) Mr. Want quotes Mr. Macrossan as stating the colonies are too large for good government and that, therefore, the larger ones should be divided by the Federal Government. It should be remembered, in this matter, that Mr. Macrossan is the most powerful of the advocates in the Queensland Parliament for the separation of the northern portion of his colony from the southern and that the question of Federation is a burning one in Queensland. Having this in memory, let me say that I quite agree with Mr. Macrossan's views and believe it would be well if continental Australia were divided into twenty instead of five provinces, yet as the Federal Parliament that-is-to-be can only have such authority as may be freely conceded to it by the Constitution it works under, it is entirely within the power of the representatives of New South Wales to say what power the National Parliament shall have in the matter of dividing the States. It could be provided in the Constitution that no State shall be diminished in size without its own consent. This is as certain to be the case in the Australian Federation as it is that the integrity of no State of the American Union is infringed without its own consent, and, in practice, such consent is unknown. Therefore, the bogy of dividing New South Wales, though such division would be an advantage, may be dismissed.

(6) Mr. Want thinks that if New South Wales were divided, Queensland would get our sugar lands; South Australia, Broken Hill, and Victoria, Riverina. The answer to the first of these bogies is that Queensland is already so large, that it is seriously proposed to divide it into two parts, each of which would be as large as New South Wales, whilst South Australia, including the Northern Territory, is nearly as large as New South Wales and Queensland put together. As to Victoria, her area is nearly one-third of that of this State, and there are infinitely greater discrepancies between the sizes of the

smaller States of the American Union and the larger ones than there is between the areas of New South Wales and Victoria. This fact shows that there is no precedent that would lead us to suppose that the smaller States in a confederation should be aggrandized at the expense of the larger ones, or, that Victoria, in particular, should be increased at the expense of New South Wales. Personally, I think it would be well to make another State out of the territory in the south and south-western districts of New South Wales. That was Dr. Lang's idea, but, at the same time, there is no need for this State to consent to any diminution in area whatever.

The ridge of mountains that have been referred to as the possession that New South Wales would claim if the Broken Hill and other districts were separated from her is one of Mr. Want's myths, unless he refers to the Dividing Range, which runs at an average distance of about forty miles from the coast. Taking the 150 miles radius that was spoken of by him we should claim all the fertile lands of the western tablelands; but when it is considered that Cootamundra, 253 miles to the southward of Sydney, Nyngan, 377 miles to the westward, and Armidale, 358 miles to the northward, or Glen Innes, 324 to the northward of Newcastle, are all closer either to Sydney or Newcastle than they are to Melbourne, Adelaide, or Brisbane, it will be admitted that the barren range of mountains and the 150 miles radius of Mr. Want are capable of stretching.

(7) Mr. Want states that our railways do not pay till they reach 150 miles inland. If this be so it will be news to many who have been taught to believe that our Suburban line, the Northern line between Newcastle and Murrurundi, the Western line between Sydney and Bathurst and the Southern line between Sydney and Goulburn are the best paying parts of our railway system. Despite Mr. Want's assertion to the contrary, I shall still continue to accept the official figures on the point, but supposing that they are misleading—supposing that the railways do not pay till the 150 mile radius has been passed, what is to prevent us, without the aid of any differential rates, from preserving the traffic much beyond that mark? I have shown by the distance from Sydney of several important towns that with a uniform gauge and a uniform tariff we can command the trade of country more than 100 miles beyond it on the south, more than 200 miles beyond it on the west, and more than 200, or by Newcastle more than 270 miles beyond it on the north. Having this in view and again relying on the official figures, which show that among the sections of our railways that do not pay, are the Junee to Hay, the Dubbo to Bourke, and the Glen Innes to the Border extensions, I am justified in asserting that Sydney, if placed on an equal footing, so far as a uniform gauge and merchandise rates are concerned, can command the trade of the

whole of that portion of New South Wales through which the paying portions of our railways run. Having the assured control of that immense extent of territory we could go much beyond it on the south, west and north, and still be on more than equal terms with the seaports of the other colonies. For example, Junee on the south is on this side of the half-way mark between Sydney and Melbourne and, when the loop-line to Liverpool is made, the half-way mark will be close to Wagga. Hence, under Federation, with uniform railway rates, supposing that Sydney could offer no advantage over Melbourne, the merchants of Sydney and Melbourne would meet on equal terms on the banks of the Murrumbidgee. Let me ask Mr. Want if that ought not to satisfy our people, when the only alternative to it is a system that is responsible for an endless war of railway tariffs; the carriage of goods beyond the natural sphere of our commerce at a dead loss to the railway revenue; the injury of the business of towns on this side of the differential line, and above all the perpetuation of a feeling of antagonism between this colony and her neighbours? On the north, we will always, owing to the natural advantages of Sydney over Brisbane as a port and as a market, command the traffic of districts far beyond the half-way line, and by means of that extension of the north-western railway that is sure to be made though, under Federation, without any beggar-my-neighbour motives, we shall actually command the trade of a large portion of south-western Queensland. This, under our present condition of isolation we shall never obtain, for the Brisbane people will follow our example and impose differential rates. These rates for the purpose they are used in Australia are unknown in America and they are as much opposed to the doctrines of Protection as they are to those of Free trade. Nominally imposed for the benefit of the railway revenue, they are destructive of it; really imposed for the benefit of one city, they are injurious in their operation to a considerable number of towns. Imposed by Free traders, their effect has been to compel people to trade in centres which are not those they would choose were they not under such compulsion. Defended by some Protectionists they attain none of the purposes for which Protection is employed. That system seeks to build up manufacturing and other industries by the aid of Customs Duties; but differential rates build up no factories, but merely force people to obtain their imports through a particular channel. This may cause a certain amount of activity near that channel; but it is at the expense of such other parts of the same country as would be the medium through which business would flow were it left alone. Thus differential rates favour one part of a country at the expense of another—favour one big town at the expense of many smaller towns. For example, all the traffic that might be done at Albury,

Moama, Hay, or Deniliquin, that is forced away from those places by differential rates to Sydney is a loss to them and causes a loss of employment to their people to the corresponding gain of Sydney. Therefore the four little towns named suffer for the benefit of one grand city. So, likewise, do numbers of towns, such as Cootamundra, that lose their district trade to some more distant place. Such are certainly not the objects of a Protectionist tariff which is framed for the purpose of causing goods to be made in a country, but not in any particular part of it, nor for the purpose of aiding one part of it at the cost of another. Having these considerations in view it must be recognized that if the differential system is good now it will be equally good for all time. Nevertheless, even provincial Protectionists affect to look forward to a time when the colony will be so completely on a level with the other provinces of Australia that there will no longer be any need for Protection against them; but the same arguments that are used to support differential rates to-day, would be equally effective a hundred years hence. Thus, it must be apparent that if the policy which is responsible for the differential rates is good enough to out-balance the advantage of Australian free trade and unity now, it will be equally valid for all time to come against the formation of any union between this colony and the remainder of Australia. Hence, it follows, that if the differential system is to be upheld, Australians must bid farewell, for ever, to the hope of becoming a nation. That is the issue, and it needs to be seriously considered.

(8) Mr. Want endeavours to make little of the sentiment which he admits underlies and forms the main motive power in the movement now making for Federation in Australia. In order to judge the worth of such sneers, it is proper that we should analyse the sentiment of Federation. If the analysis proves the sentiment to be an unworthy one, or one that seems so unreal or absurd as to invite sneering comment, Mr. Want stands justified; but, if there are forces combined in the Federal sentiment that appeal directly to the highest instincts of the human heart, he stands condemned. Let us see. A man who loves his country is called a patriot. He is not praised for being worthy of that title; because it is as natural that a man should love his country as that he should love his parents; but when we know that a man who does not love his country is considered an unnatural and infamous being, we recognize that love of country is one of the highest, though happily one of the commonest virtues of mankind. But patriotism partakes of two natures. There is the patriotism which makes a man love the home, village, town, city, district or province in which he was born, or in which all his fondest associations lie. This sentiment is very worthy in its way; but yet, if any of those who are influenced

by it—and there are few who are not—do not combine with it a love of the country in which their home, village, town, city, district or province is situated, they are not considered to be patriots, but as narrow-minded creatures worthy of nothing but contempt. Such being the case, the question, in our case, comes to this—is Australia naturally one country, and is New South Wales but a section of that country? Elsewhere, I have shown that by the will of the Designer, there are no natural features that would indicate that any part of Australia was designed to be the seat of a nation, independent of the inhabitants of the rest of the land. It is crossed by no lofty ranges, divided by no deep arms of the sea, or intersected by no wide rivers; but from shore to shore, it spreads itself out as though nature had written upon its bosom the words "This is to be the abode of but One Race and One Nation." This is the will of Nature as marked, not merely on Australia's spreading plains, but on the rocks that lie beneath them and on the creatures that feed above them, and if the Creator, as we are taught, interposes in the affairs of man, He has set His seal on the work of Nature; for through His wisdom the one land of Nature has become the seat of but one race. Thus, all things point to the fact that Australia is One Country and being so; it is natural that her sons and daughters should love her as a whole and not merely the part of her surface where they happen to reside.

If there be those who dispute that Nature and Design have made Australia one country for one people, will these persons say that, if the Clarence District, for example, were to be separated (as has been proposed) from New South Wales, it would cease to have any claim to the regard of the people living to the south of it? Would it become another country because an Act of Parliament removed it from the jurisdiction of Sydney and gave it authority to make laws for itself? Would it not rather continue in spite of the arbitrary dividing lines to be part of a common country? If it be admitted that it would, why should Queensland, which less than thirty years ago, and Victoria, which about forty years ago, were by Act of Parliament removed from the control of the Sydney Legislature, not also be accounted part of a common country?

Again, if distance from Sydney be deemed to be a valid reason for treating as foreigners those who have an equal title with the residents in that city to be called Australians, then are the populations of Wentworth and Broken Hill more foreigners to Sydney people than are the citizens of Melbourne; but if distance from a given point does not cause people to cease to be fellow-countrymen, then are the inhabitants of Victoria, in the south of Australia, no less fellow-countrymen of ours than those who reside at a similar distance to the westward of Sydney.

From all these circumstances we come to the fact that Australia is one country, inhabited by one people, but cut up into sections, the inhabitants of each of which have authority to make laws for themselves and, further, that each one of these sections bears the same relation to the whole country that—to put a similar case—the province of Wales, under Home Rule, would bear to the whole of Great Britain. Each section of Australia commands and should have the regard of its inhabitants ; but these should, likewise, never forget that their province is but a part of a whole, which is Australia, and to that—their natural country—they owe the love and duties of patriotism. Patriotism is, as we have seen, one of the most natural of the sentiments of the human heart and it impels to action where there seems a necessity to act for the good of the country. Australian patriots see that their natural country has by artificial arrangements been cut up into provinces, each of which is being impressed by laws and regulations with the idea that it has interests opposed to those of all the others. Hence, there is a steady tendency to produce the idea in the minds of the people of each State that those who are really their fellow-countrymen are rivals, strangers, and even foreigners. This idea has, in New South Wales, in the short space of thirty years, accustomed numbers of persons to speak of people north of the Tweed River as 'foreigners' and their goods as 'foreign products.' If thirty years has effected that much what will another thirty years do ? Surely, by that time, it will be a question whether the aliens north of the Tweed, and the still greater aliens south of the Murray, will not be something more than foreigners. Will it not be likely that they will actually be what Sir John Robertson and others would have us think they are now—namely, our enemies and bitter foes ?

We stand to-day at the parting of the ways. One leads through the gate of Union to a grand national life for all Australia with strength, peace, and concord in all her borders ; the other, through the gate of Disunion, to six weak, rival nationalities, each one jealous of the prosperity of all the others, but particularly so of the one that most nearly approaches it in wealth and prospects, and ready as occasion serves to impede or, at least, to forestall its rival in some direction or another. What must be the outcome of this ? Is it not morally certain that sooner or later the rivalry would eventuate in strife, and strife in death, with the probability of foreign intervention for which the alien intervener would demand payment ?

Enough : I forbear to dilate further on such an alternative to union, concord, and strength ; but for all the reasons I have assigned I stand immutably for Australia and against sectionalism and now and ever I appeal to all my countrymen to do so, likewise."

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

THE writer has to thank Captain Collins, Official Secretary of the High Commissioner of the Commonwealth, and also Mr. Ellison of his department for the assistance they gave him by permitting him to have access to the records.

Thanks are also given to the staffs of the New South Wales, Queensland, South Australian, and Victorian Agents-General for books and papers freely supplied.

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